

# Single-Entity-Single-Relation Question Answering with Minimal Annotation

by

Zhongyu Peng

A thesis  
presented to the University of Waterloo  
in fulfillment of the  
thesis requirement for the degree of  
Master of Mathematics  
in  
Computer Science

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2016

© Zhongyu Peng 2016

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

## Abstract

We present a novel bag-of-words based approach that automatically constructs a semantic parsing based question answering (QA) system tailored to single-entity-single-relation questions. Given a large community QA pair corpus and a knowledge base, our approach uses knowledge base entries to supervise relation extraction from the corpus, reduces noise in the extracted data via unsupervised clustering, and learns to identify each relation’s question patterns. We implement the approach on a large Chinese corpus with little annotation, which we believe is one of the first of its kind. Experiments show that our implementation manages to answer questions in test cases independent of the corpus with relatively high accuracy and to avoid answering questions beyond its scope, achieving a high accuracy on answered questions.

## **Acknowledgements**

I would first like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Ming Li. He is available for help at every stage of my graduate study. His guidance and support made this thesis possible.

I would also like to thank the readers of my thesis, Dr. Grant Weddell and Dr. Chrysanne DiMarco, for reviewing my work.

Special thanks to Anqi Cui and Borui Ye, who gave me lots of advice and helped annotating the data used in this thesis.

Finally, I must express my very profound gratitude towards my parents. Without their encouragement and support throughout my years of study, none of my accomplishments would have been possible.

## **Dedication**

This is dedicated to my parents whose unwavering support sustains me through.

# Table of Contents

List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
<b>1 Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2 Related Work</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1 Question Answering . . . . .	3
2.2 Relation Extraction . . . . .	5
<b>3 Approach</b>	<b>7</b>
3.1 Overview . . . . .	7
3.2 Question Pattern Extraction . . . . .	8
3.3 Noise Reduction . . . . .	10
3.4 Pattern Evaluation and Model Selection . . . . .	13
3.5 Question Parsing and Answering . . . . .	14
<b>4 Data and Implementation</b>	<b>15</b>
4.1 Overview . . . . .	15
4.2 Data . . . . .	15
4.3 Experiment Environment . . . . .	17
4.4 Question Pattern Extraction . . . . .	17

4.5	Noise Reduction . . . . .	19
4.6	Pattern Evaluation and Model Selection . . . . .	22
4.7	Question Parsing and Answering . . . . .	28
<b>5</b>	<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>30</b>
5.1	Overview . . . . .	30
5.2	Noise Reduction . . . . .	30
5.3	System Parameters . . . . .	32
5.4	Answer Triggering . . . . .	32
5.5	Question Coverage . . . . .	33
5.6	Run Time . . . . .	38
<b>6</b>	<b>Discussion</b>	<b>42</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>48</b>
	<b>References</b>	<b>50</b>

# List of Tables

5.1	Average precision, average recall, average f1-measure, and Pearson produce-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's $r$ ) between f1-measure and number of extracted questions for different typed relations in noise reduction component. . . . .	31
5.2	Statistics of <i>SystemR</i> , Solr, and basic configuration of our system on the QA test cases. . . . .	37
5.3	Statistics of our system with $\theta_{model} = 0.6$ , $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$ and different $n_{tree}$ and $r_{noise}$ values on the QA test cases. . . . .	39
5.4	Statistics of our system with $n_{tree} = 25$ , $r_{noise} = 10\%$ , $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$ and different $\theta_{model}$ values on the QA test cases. . . . .	39
5.5	Statistics of our system with $n_{tree} = 25$ , $r_{noise} = 10\%$ , $\theta_{model} = 0.6$ and different $\theta_{answer}$ values on the QA test cases. . . . .	40
5.6	System's average run time per question and number of relations in the system with different $n_{tree}$ , $r_{noise}$ , $\theta_{model}$ values on the QA test cases. . . . .	41
6.1	Answer triggering and question coverage statistics of our system with $\theta_{model} = 0.6$ , $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$ and different $n_{tree}$ and $r_{noise}$ values. . . . .	46



# List of Figures

4.1	Relations and corresponding number of questions . . . . .	20
4.2	Relations and corresponding number of extracted questions, non-noise questions . . . . .	22
4.3	Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against <i>related</i> relations' questions during two independent cross validation runs with the same parameters. . . . .	24
4.4	Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against <i>related</i> relations' questions with $r_{noise} = 10\%$ and different $n_{tree}$ values. . . . .	24
4.5	Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with $r_{noise} = 10\%$ and different $n_{tree}$ values. . . . .	25
4.6	Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with $n_{tree} = 25$ and different $r_{noise}$ values. . . . .	26
4.7	Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with $r_{noise} = 20\%$ and different $n_{tree}$ values. . . . .	26
4.8	Average f1-measures on questions against noise sample and on questions against <i>related</i> relations' questions with 25 trees and 10% noise sampling rate. . . . .	27
5.1	Answer triggering accuracy and probability threshold for answer selection with different values of $n_{tree}$ , $r_{noise}$ , $\theta_{model}$ , and $\theta_{answer}$ . . . . .	34
5.2	Answer triggering accuracy and f1 measure threshold for model selection with different values of $n_{tree}$ , $r_{noise}$ , $\theta_{model}$ , and $\theta_{answer}$ . . . . .	35
6.1	Relations' f1-measure in noise reduction and average f1-measure in classification against 10% noise sample with 25 trees in random forests. . . . .	43

6.2	Relations' f1-measure in noise reduction and average f1-measure in classification against <i>related</i> relations' questions with 25 trees in random forests.	43
6.3	Relations' accuracy on question coverage test cases at the basic configuration of our system and corresponding f1-measure on noise reduction. . . . .	44
6.4	Relations' accuracy on question coverage test cases at the basic configuration of our system and minimum of average f1-measure in classification against 10% noise sample and in <i>related</i> relations' questions with 25 trees in random forests. . . . .	45
6.5	Answer triggering and question coverage statistics of our system with $n_{tree} = 25$ , $r_{noise} = 10\%$ , $\theta_{model} = 0.6$ and different $\theta_{answer}$ values. . . . .	46
6.6	Answer triggering and question coverage statistics of our system with $n_{tree} = 25$ , $r_{noise} = 10\%$ , $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$ and different $\theta_{model}$ values. . . . .	47
7.1	Relationships between community QA questions, single-entity-single-relation questions, and questions that our implementation has learned to answer. .	48

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Wolfram Alpha <sup>1</sup> is an answer engine developed by Wolfram Research. It can answer factual queries directly with answers from its structured knowledge bases. For example, query “Where’s Canada’s capital?” returns answer “Ottawa”. It is used to power Apple’s intelligent personal assistant, Siri, and Samsung’s counterpart, S Voice.

Yet when asked the same question but in Chinese, “加拿大的首都在哪里? (Where’s Canada’s capital?)”, Wolfram Alpha does not know how to interpret the question <sup>2</sup>. Even Siri, which supports the Chinese language, cannot answer the question and returns a list of search results from the Web instead. We are motivated to build an open domain question answering (QA) system that can answer such questions in Chinese.

Questions such as “NSA的总部在哪里? (Where’s NSA’s headquarters?)” and “奥巴马什么时候出生的? (When was Obama born?)” are known as single-entity-single-relation questions, as each question is composed of an entity mention and a binary relation description. It is a subset of factoid questions and is observed to be the most common type of questions in various community QA sites [13]. We focus on answering such questions.

Automatic QA systems that return the direct and exact answers to natural language questions have been in the limelight of research since 1960s and 1970s (e.g., Baseball [14], Lunar [30]). Though early systems are limited to closed-domains due to lack of knowledge sources, recently there has been huge growth in open-domain systems since the development of large scale knowledge bases, such as DBpedia [1], Freebase [5], ReVerb [12], and Yago2 [18] in the past decade. The advent of publicly available large scale datasets,

---

<sup>1</sup>Wolfram Alpha, [www.wolframalpha.com](http://www.wolframalpha.com)

<sup>2</sup>Wolfram Alpha doesn’t know how to interpret your input, [www.wolframalpha.com/input/?i=加拿大的首都在哪里](http://www.wolframalpha.com/input/?i=加拿大的首都在哪里), retrieved on July 9, 2016.

such as webpage collection ClueWeb09 <sup>3</sup> with about 1 billion webpages, WikiAnswers <sup>4</sup> questions paraphrases [13] with 18 million paraphrase pairs, and annotated QA pairs SimpleQuestions [7] with 108,442 labeled questions, further facilitates the development of automatic QA systems.

Most approaches either use semantic parsing or information extraction methods. Information retrieval based systems [6] [7] [10] [17] [28] [33] retrieve candidate documents and then analyze them to obtain answers, while semantic parsing based systems [3] [4] [20] [34] [37] [38] parse natural language questions into logical forms and lookup knowledge bases for answers. State-of-the-art systems include information retrieval based Jacana-freebase [32] and semantic parsing based PARALEX [13].

Despite the popularity of research on QA systems, few works on QA in the Chinese language are known. The main reason is lack of data to work on. For example, the only publicly available knowledge bases with a Chinese version is DBpedia [1], which we will use for our implementation.

We start by gathering data. After scraping community QA websites in China, we have collected about 260 million QA pairs. Based on the data that we have, we take the semantic parsing approach and design a real-time QA system with the following goals in mind: 1) to answer as many single-entity-single-relation questions as possible with reasonable accuracy, and 2) to avoid answering non-single-entity-single-relation questions. Also we avoid manual annotation as much as possible because manual labeling is costly and limits the scale of the system.

Our approach uses knowledge bases to supervise the extraction of questions by relation, sifts through the noisy extracted data, and learns each relation’s question patterns. We demonstrate through experiments that our bag-of-words based system has learned to answer questions not present in its training data and even beyond the community QA data while maintaining a high accuracy on answered questions.

Even though we experiment on data in the Chinese language, our approach is language-independent.

---

<sup>3</sup>ClueWeb09, webpage collection, [lemurproject.org/clueweb09/](http://lemurproject.org/clueweb09/)

<sup>4</sup>WikiAnswers, a English community QA site, [answers.wikia.com/wiki/Wikianswers](http://answers.wikia.com/wiki/Wikianswers)

# Chapter 2

## Related Work

### 2.1 Question Answering

Many studies have been done on question answering. Most methods fall into two categories: information retrieval based and semantic parsing based.

Information retrieval based systems retrieve candidate documents and then analyze them to obtain answers. Early systems, such as AnswerBus [40] and MULDER [21], use features from questions to generate queries for Web search engines (e.g., Google<sup>1</sup>, Yahoo<sup>2</sup>), retrieve short passages, extract answer candidates, and rank answers. The key to good results is query generation and answer ranking. For example, MULDER would generate additional query by replacing the adjective in the question with its attribute noun, and pick the best candidate answer by clustering and voting. Current approaches for answer selection include syntactic analysis (e.g., tree-edit distance based tree matching method [10], tree kernel function together with logistic regression model with syntactic features of edit sequences [17]), lexical semantic model (e.g., pairing semantically related words based on word relations [33]), and deep learning neural networks (e.g., stacked bidirectional long short-term memory network with keyword matching [28], embedding model that embeds questions and corresponding answers close to each other [6]).

Jacana-freebase [32] is one of the state-of-the-art information retrieval-based systems. It uses Freebase Search API <sup>3</sup> to retrieve topic graphs from Freebase [5] as candidate

---

<sup>1</sup>Google, search engine, [www.google.com](http://www.google.com)

<sup>2</sup>Yahoo!, search engine, [www.yahoo.com](http://www.yahoo.com)

<sup>3</sup>Search overview for Freebase API, [developers.google.com/freebase/v1/search-overview](http://developers.google.com/freebase/v1/search-overview).

documents. It converts the dependency parse of the question into a feature graph and uses rules to extract question features. Also it uses relations and properties of nodes in retrieved topic graphs as knowledge base features. To rank candidate questions, it feeds the extracted question features and the extracted knowledge base features to a binary classifier that outputs correct or incorrect.

On the other hand, semantic parsing based systems usually work together with knowledge bases. They parse natural language questions into logical forms and lookup knowledge bases for answers. Generally, to answer a question, they decompose questions, map phrases to knowledge base items (e.g., entities, relations, queries), generate knowledge base queries, pick the top ranked query, and retrieve the answer. Early efforts [20] [37] [38] train the parser with English sentences paired with manually annotated logical forms as supervision, while recent works [3] [4] use question-answer pairs as weak supervision to avoid the expensive manual annotation.

PARALEX [13] is one of the first general open-domain QA systems that is scaled to large knowledge bases. It maps questions to formal queries over ReVerb [12] extractions, a database consisting of relation triples extracted from ClueWeb09 <sup>4</sup>. The model used to generate the database query includes a lexicon used to map natural language patterns to database items, and a linear ranking function used to rank the queries derived from the input question. The system derives a query by decomposing the question into an entity pattern, a relation pattern, and a question pattern, and then applying the lexicon. The lexicon is induced by applying learned word alignments on paraphrases of questions from WikiAnswers <sup>5</sup>. Though the development of the system does not involve manual annotation of questions, it requires a seed lexicon consisting of 16 question templates (e.g. What is the  $r$  of  $e$ ?  $r$  is a database relation,  $e$  is a database entity).

Inspired by PARALEX, Yih et al. [34] build a system that matches natural language patterns with database items via a semantic similarity function instead of a lexicon, from the same data that PARALEX uses. At the core of the system is a semantic similarity model based on convolutional neural networks trained on the WikiAnswers paraphrases. Given a question, the system decomposes it into two disjoint parts, an entity mention and a relation pattern, by enumerating all possible combinations. The combinations are fed into the semantic similarity model, mapped to database entity and database relation, and scored. The system then looks up the ReVerb database with the entity and the relation and returns the result as answer.

The major challenge for us to adopt an existing method is lack of data to operate on.

---

<sup>4</sup>ClueWeb09, webpage collection, [lemurproject.org/clueweb09/](http://lemurproject.org/clueweb09/)

<sup>5</sup>WikiAnswers, a English community QA site, [answers.wikia.com/wiki/Wikianswers](http://answers.wikia.com/wiki/Wikianswers)

For example, neither Freebase [5] nor ClueWeb09 has Chinese versions, and paraphrases of questions [13] similar to that of WikiAnswers are also difficult to obtain as users on Chinese community QA sites do not get to tag similar questions. Moreover, manually annotated QA pairs such as SimpleQuestions [7] not only are in English only, but are also costly to produce. Consequently, we need to collect our own data and design a method suitable for our data.

## 2.2 Relation Extraction

Relation extraction aims to detect and classify relations between named entities or marked nominals. It plays a key role in question answering. Majority of the works considers it as a supervised multi-class classification task. Most supervised methods can be categorized into feature-based methods, kernel-based methods, and deep learning neural network-based methods.

Feature-based methods extract various kinds of linguistics features and feed them into multi-class classifiers (e.g., max entropy model [19], SVM [15]). Handcrafted features include lexical features (e.g., entities, part-of-speech tags of entities), syntactic features (e.g., parse trees), and semantic features (e.g., concept hierarchy, entity class).

Kernel-based methods explore structural features by using similarity measure (kernel function). Zelenko et al. [35], one of the earliest works, use a tree kernel that computes the similarity of shallow parse trees by a weighted sum of common subtrees. Later, Bunescu et al. [9] use a kernel function that makes use of the shortest dependency path between two entities. Furthermore, Zhang et al. [39] uses a composite kernel: a combination of a tree kernel and a lexical feature kernel. Similarly, Wang [29] introduces syntactic features into the kernel function, and Plank et al. [25] introduces semantic features.

Neural-network-based methods learn the underlying features automatically. Socher et al. [27] propose a matrix-vector recursive neural network that assigns matrix-vector representation to parse tree nodes and learns compositional vector representations for phrases and sentences. Zeng et al. [36] learn sentence-level features via a convolutional neural network, extract lexical features, and combine them for classification.

Aside from supervised methods that require costly manual labeling, there are other approaches. Unsupervised approaches [2] [26] extract and cluster sequences of words between entity mentions from a large textual corpus. Compared to supervised methods, results from unsupervised methods do not have clear labels associated with each relation. To counter this issue, distant supervision [24] uses known relations from knowledge bases to

guide the extraction from a large textual corpus. The assumption is that if two entities are known to have a known relation in a knowledge base, then any sentence that mentions these entities expresses the relation in some way.

Mintz et al. [24] experiment on Freebase to extract relations from Wikipedia. Given two entities, the system extracts features from sentences that contain the two entities, aggregate the features into a single feature vector, and feeds it into a multi-class logistic regression classifier. The extracted features include: lexical features (e.g., part-of-speech tags of entities, sequence of words between entities), syntactic features (e.g., dependency path between entities), and named entity tag features.



# Chapter 3

## Approach

### 3.1 Overview

In this chapter we describe the methodologies to build a specialized QA system from scratch with question-answer pairs from community QA sites and entity-relation-value triples from knowledge bases. The system is designed with the following goals in mind:

- The system should answer as many single-entity-single-relation questions as possible with reasonable accuracy.
- The system should not answer questions that do not fall into the single-entity-single-relation category.

Even though our motivation is to build a QA system that can answer questions in Chinese language, our approach is independent of the language of the data.

Our system extracts question patterns from community QA sites, evaluates the extracted patterns, and couples them with knowledge bases to answer single-entity-single-relation questions. The basic idea is that similar questions are asking about similar relations. We choose a bag-of-words approach, and there are four major steps:

1. (Offline) Extract single-entity-single-relation questions from community QA data with the guidance of triples from knowledge base. (Section [3.2](#))
2. (Offline) Reduce the noise present in the extracted question by clustering. (Section [3.3](#))

3. (Offline) Evaluate the filtered questions via classification and train models with selected data. (Section 3.4)
4. (Online) Parse question and rank potential answers. (Section 3.5)

## 3.2 Question Pattern Extraction

One major challenge when building a machine learning system is collecting training data. The correctness of the labeling and the quantity of the training data directly impact the system performance. However, quality data is often hard to come by, because hand-labeled corpora is expensive to produce and therefore limited in quantity. This is especially a problem when the study focuses on the Chinese language, as labeled Chinese corpora is very scarce.

In our Chinese question-answering case, we need single-entity-single-relation questions, with the mentioned entities and implied relations labeled, in order to learn the varied question patterns for each relation. For example, for question “碟中谍是谁拍的? (Who directed Mission Impossible?)”, the corresponding annotation we would like to have is “碟中谍(Mission Impossible)” as the entity and “导演(director)” as the relation. With such labels, we can deduce that “X 是谁拍的? (Who directed X?)” is likely to be asking about the “导演(director)” of X.

We extract the questions with the labels from a corpora of community QA pairs. Distant supervision [24] is a commonly used technique to generate large amounts of automatically labeled training data effectively. It assumes that if an entity-relation-entity triple exists in a knowledge base, then any sentence that contains the pair of entities is likely to express the relation in some way. It is a strong assumption and usually introduces wrong labels into the training data, hindering the performance of trained models. Also, it is limited to relations between entities in the sense that literals, such as dates, numbers, and strings, are not considered during the extraction process. As a result, data pertaining to relations that involve an entity and a literal, e.g. birthday, population, etc. cannot be generated.

To apply the idea of distant supervision to our work, we first extend it to extract QA pairs instead of sentences, and to include entity-literal relations:

For an entity-relation-value<sup>1</sup> triple in a knowledge base, a QA pair is said to be *associated* with the triple if the two following conditions are met:

---

<sup>1</sup>A value can be an entity, or a literal

1. The question contains the entity but not the value,
2. The answer(s) contain the value.

For each entity-relation-value triple, all questions in *associated* QA pairs are extracted with labels “entity” and “relation”.

For example, consider the relation triple (“纽约市(New York City)”, “人口(population)”, “8336697”) and the QA pair (“纽约市有多少人? (How many people live in New York City?)”, “据估计, 2012年有8336697人住在纽约(According to estimate, in 2012 New York City has a population of 8336697.)”): because the entity appears in the question while the value only appears in the answer, the question meets the criteria and is extracted with labels “纽约市(New York City)” and “人口(population)”.

Because answers on community QA sites vary from few words to several long paragraphs, they tend to carry more information compared to single sentences. As a result, QA pair extraction introduces more noise than sentence extraction. Consider the QA pair (“介绍一下纽约市(Tell me about New York City)”, “纽约市位于纽约州南端, 是美国人口最多的城市, 常驻人口8336697人, 土地面积305平方英里... (New York City is located at the southern tip of the State of New York. With a population of 8,336,697, it is the most populous city in the United State. It has a land area of 305 square miles...)”). The question does not fall into single-entity-single-relation category; however, with the simple extraction rule stated above, the question would be extracted multiple times and labeled with relations such as population, location, area, etc.

We mitigate the noise issue by introducing additional constraint. Under the simple extraction rule, for each extraction, only one entity-relation-value triple is used to guide the process. Yet in knowledge bases, an entity usually has more than one entity-relation-value triples. Intuitively, if a QA pair can only be *associated* with one entity-relation-value triple, it is more likely to be about the “relation” in the triple. In the “介绍一下纽约市(Tell me about New York City)” example above, if we only extract the question if the QA pair can only be *associated* with one triple, the question will not be extracted.

We use the following rule to extract questions from community QA pairs:

Given knowledge base  $K = \{(e, r, v)\}$  where  $(e, r, v)$  represents an entity-relation-value triple, and community QA data  $C = \{(q, a)\}$  where  $(q, a)$  represents a question-answer pair, for an entity-relation-value triple  $(e, r, v) \in K$  and an *associated* QA pair  $(q, a) \in C$ , we extract question  $q$  and label it with entity  $e$  and relation  $r$  if and only if  $\forall (e, r', v') \in K, (e, r', v')$  is *associated* with  $(q, a) \iff r' = r$  and  $v' = v$ .

For further processing, we strip the extracted questions of the labeled entities and group them by the labeled relations. For example, “纽约市有多少人? (How many people live in New York City?)” is stored as “ $e$ 有多少人? (How many people live in  $e$ ?)” with other questions such as “ $e$ 的人口是多少? (What is the population of  $e$ ?)” under relation “人口(population)”.

### 3.3 Noise Reduction

As our data is produced by automatic extraction instead of manual labeling, it is expected to contain more noise; therefore, noise reduction is a critical step. Consider the triple (“纽约市(New York City)”, “人口(population)”, “8 million”) and the QA pair (“纽约市一套房多少钱? (How much does a house in New York City cost?)”, “8 million”): though the question is not asking about the population of New York City, it would be labeled with “New York City” and “population” because the QA pair meets our extraction criteria. We want to filter out the mislabeled questions and retain as many different question patterns as possible.

Whether a question is making an inquiry about certain relation is closely related to whether there are many similar questions labeled with the same relation. If several questions with the same relation label have a similar pattern, it is likely that the shared pattern is an inquiry template about the relation. Meanwhile, if a question pattern is a popular inquiry about certain relation, many people would use it when they ask about the relation; as a result, the pattern is expected to match several questions in our collected data. Following this reasoning, we use clustering for noise reduction. For each relation, we cluster similar questions together and consider the questions without cluster assignments as noise.

We model sentences as bags of their words and consider two sentences to be similar if their vocabularies overlap: the more words the sentences share, the more similar we consider them to be. We can measure it by calculating the cosine similarity between two vector representations. Given an indexed vocabulary  $V$ , a straightforward bag-of-words vector representation of a sentence would be a  $|V|$ -entry vector, where  $i$ -th entry is the count of the  $i$ -th word of  $V$  in the sentence. But in our case calculating similarity directly on bag-of-words representations is undesirable, mainly for two reasons:

- The Chinese language has tens of thousands of unique characters and millions of common words. As a result, straightforward vector representations of bag-of-words models are sparse. Moreover, we are calculating similarity measures between short

sentences instead of long passages, so it is less likely that two vectors have non-zero values on any given component. Due to these factors, we would get coarse-grained similarity measures: because the values on each dimensions are restricted to integer values, the cosine similarity between a  $m$ -word sentence and a  $n$ -word sentence can only be one of the  $m \cdot n$  discrete values between 0 and 1, no matter how they vary in meaning. This makes differentiation difficult.

- For cosine similarity to accurately reflect how similar two vector are, the basis vectors need to be independent of each other. However, individual words, the basis vectors in our case, clearly are not independent of each other. Therefore, cosine similarity over straightforward bag-of-words vector representations is not accurate. For example, consider phrase pair (“非常(very)好(good)”, “很(very)好(good)”) and phrase pair (“很(very)好(good)”, “不(not)好(good)”): both would have a cosine similarity of 0.5, yet the first pair has similar meanings while the second pair has opposite meanings.

To refine the similarity measure, we use word embeddings. On a vocabulary  $V$ , a word embedding  $\delta$  projects a word  $w \in V$  into an  $n$ -dimension vector  $v$ . We show that with word embedding, a  $|V|$ -dimension straightforward vector representation is projected to a  $n$ -dimension vector:

Given indexed vocabulary  $V = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{|V|}\}$ , word embedding  $\delta$  where  $\forall i, 1 \leq i \leq |V|, \delta(w_i) = v_i = (v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}, \dots, v_{i_n}) = v_{i_1} \cdot e_1 + v_{i_2} \cdot e_2 + \dots + v_{i_n} \cdot e_n$ , and a sentence  $s$  with straightforward vector representation  $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{|V|})$ , we

have:

$$\begin{aligned}
s &= (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{|V|}) \\
&= c_1 \cdot w_1 + c_2 \cdot w_2 + \dots + c_{|V|} \cdot w_{|V|} \\
&\xrightarrow{\delta} c_1 \cdot v_1 + c_2 \cdot v_2 + \dots + c_{|V|} \cdot v_{|V|} \\
&= c_1(v_{1_1} \cdot e_1 + v_{1_2} \cdot e_2 + \dots + v_{1_n} \cdot e_n) \\
&\quad + c_2(v_{2_1} \cdot e_1 + v_{2_2} \cdot e_2 + \dots + v_{2_n} \cdot e_n) \\
&\quad + \dots \\
&\quad + c_{|V|}(v_{|V|_1} \cdot e_1 + v_{|V|_2} \cdot e_2 + \dots + v_{|V|_n} \cdot e_n) \\
&= (c_1 v_{1_1} + c_2 v_{2_1} + \dots + c_{|V|} v_{|V|_1}) e_1 \\
&\quad + (c_1 v_{1_2} + c_2 v_{2_2} + \dots + c_{|V|} v_{|V|_2}) e_2 \\
&\quad + \dots \\
&\quad + (c_1 v_{1_n} + c_2 v_{2_n} + \dots + c_{|V|} v_{|V|_n}) e_n \\
&= \\
&\quad (c_1 v_{1_1} + c_2 v_{2_1} + \dots + c_{|V|} v_{|V|_1}, \\
&\quad c_1 v_{1_2} + c_2 v_{2_2} + \dots + c_{|V|} v_{|V|_2}, \\
&\quad \dots, \\
&\quad c_1 v_{1_n} + c_2 v_{2_n} + \dots + c_{|V|} v_{|V|_n})
\end{aligned}$$

Compared to straightforward bag-of-words vector representation, the new representation has many benefits. First, the vector space has drastically fewer dimensions, and the vectors have real-number values instead of positive integer values on each dimension. Accordingly, cosine similarity would give more continuous numeric values and have better differentiation. Moreover, if the word vectors have the property that similar words have higher cosine similarities, cosine similarity based on the new representation would be more accurate.

For clustering, we use unsupervised density-based clustering algorithms. Compared to other clustering algorithms, density-based algorithms have several advantages that suits our system. First, density-based clustering works on unlabeled data. Second, density-based clustering allows outliers with no cluster assignments. In our case, such observation points which are distant from other observations are noise. Finally, density-based clustering does not need information on number of clusters. We cannot reasonably estimate number of clusters because it is impractical to estimate each relation's number of question patterns and one cluster may contain several question patterns if the patterns are similar enough.

As we are looking for universal patterns for each relation, we put in additional restraint to restrict any single entity’s influence: if all the questions in a cluster are labeled with one single entity, we discard all the question in the cluster as noise.

### 3.4 Pattern Evaluation and Model Selection

In the noise reduction step, we filter out questions that do not have enough similar questions to form clusters. However, this does not eliminate noise. When the system operates on huge amounts of data, there may be a sufficient number of similar irrelevant questions for irrelevant clusters to form and thereby pass the noise filtering. We need to evaluate the processed data of each relation.

We measure the relevancy of each relation’s data by testing it against noise and other relations’ data:

- we test whether it is distinguishable from the noise of the noise reduction step. If it is difficult to tell it apart from noise, the data is likely to be noise. For example, the data may consist of aforementioned irrelevant clusters.
- we test whether it is distinguishable from the data of the relation’s *related* relations. Here we say relation  $B$  is relation  $A$ ’s *related* relation if entities with entries on relation  $A$  in the knowledge base are likely to also have entries on relation  $B$ . If it is difficult to separate the data from *related* relations’ data, the data is likely to be about multiple relations. For example, the data may consist of clusters similar to *related* relations’ data. We restrict the testing to against *related* relations instead of all other relations because in the knowledge base many relations have the same meaning and their data would be indistinguishable from each other.

We approach testing distinguishability as a classification task. Using bag-of-words model, if two collections of questions are distinguishable from each other, we expect binary classifiers trained on the collections to achieve high f1-measures. For each relation, we conduct cross-validation iterations of binary classifiers on its data against noise and on its data against its *related* relations’ data, independently. We calculate the two average f1-measures, and use the lower one as the relation’s relevancy score.

We retain the relations whose relevancy scores are higher than certain threshold, and train classifiers on the data without any holdout. For each relation, we have a classifier on its data against noise and a classifier on its data against its *related* relations’ data.

Combined, these classification models can tell whether a new question is similar to the data of retained relations. In other words, given a question, now we can identify which relation the question is referring to.

### 3.5 Question Parsing and Answering

Now that we can identify the relation, in order to search the knowledge base for the answers to the question, we only need to extract the entity in the question by using a named-entity recognizer (NER). For each entity candidate  $e$  that NER returns, we identify the relation  $r$  in the question with classifiers and search the knowledge base for triples that have  $e$  as entity and  $r$  as relation. We rank the results by the classifiers' output, i.e. probability that the question is referring to certain relation, and return the answer with the highest score.



# Chapter 4

## Data and Implementation

### 4.1 Overview

In this chapter, we describe in details how we implement the system and the data on which the implementation is based. As data plays a critical role in our system, the implementation is closely coupled with the data we have.

In Section 4.2, we list all the data we access to implement the system.

In Section 4.3, we briefly describe our experiment environment, which affects our implementation by physically restricting the computing power available to us.

In Section 4.4, we describe the details of how we extract questions from the knowledge base.

In Section 4.5, we describe the details of how we reduce noise in the extracted data.

In Section 4.6, we describe the details of how we evaluate the collected questions and train the models to identify relations in questions.

In Section 4.7, we describe the details of how we parse the questions, generate candidate answers, and rank them.

### 4.2 Data

We use following Chinese resources for our implementation:

- DBpedia infobox properties

For knowledge base, we use DBpedia [1], obtained from DBpedia 2014 data dump <sup>1</sup>. It consists of information extracted from Wikipedia infoboxes, stored as entity-relation-value triples. We use DBpedia because it is the only publicly available knowledge base in Chinese.

The release has 7,285,034 entries on 422,728 entities and 23,219 relations. An entity is a link to a Wikipedia article. Since a Wikipedia article can be uniquely identified by its title, we use the title to denote the entity. A relation is a nominal tag, usually a parameter name in the Wikipedia infobox. However, in our case, the tags often differ from the parameter names and are not accurate descriptors for the relations. For example, while the actual parameter names are all Chinese, only 6,523 out of 23,219 relation tags in the data are Chinese. A value is either an entity or a literal with type, e.g. number, text, date.

As the data is automatically extracted from Wikipedia, it has several issues aside from errors in values. First of all, the data unfortunately includes meta information in infoboxes such as “imagesize” as relation entries. Additionally, the literal types are inaccurate. For example, date values are often mislabeled as number values. Literal types are important to us because natural expression can vary a lot from DBpedia expression depending on the actual data types. For example, date is stored as “yyyy-mm-dd”, a format that does not exist in conversation or community QA questions.

To mitigate the issues, we annotate the top 400 English relation tags and the top 404 Chinese relation tags with type “meta”, “entity”, “number”, and “date”. 29 relations are labeled “number”, 55 relations are labeled “date”, 389 relations are labeled “entity”, and the rest 331 relations are labeled “meta”. The 804 annotated relation tags cover 416,254 (98.5%) entities and 5,763,288 (79.1%) triples. Among them, 473 (58.8%) have non-meta types, covering 380,513 (90.0%) entities and 2,467,063 (33.9%) triples. 273 out of 473 tags are in Chinese. This is the only human annotation needed in our implementation.

- Community QA pairs

We have a data set consisting of 366,381,454 QA pairs from community QA websites in China, including the two largest websites, Sougou Wenwen <sup>2</sup> and Baidu Zhidao

---

<sup>1</sup>DBpedia 2014 downloads, [oldwiki.dbpedia.org/Downloads2014](http://oldwiki.dbpedia.org/Downloads2014)

<sup>2</sup>Sougou Wenwen, Chinese community QA site, [wenwen.sougou.com](http://wenwen.sougou.com), formerly known as Tencent Wenwen Soso

<sup>3</sup>. Each pair contains one question and at least one answers. The questions cover a wide range of topics from computer games to agriculture.

Around 100 million questions are dated before 2010 and were collected by others in 2010. We contributed the rest of questions, dated between 2010 to 2014, by scraping the websites from 2013 to 2015. The data is indexed and stored using Apache Solr <sup>4</sup>. In our setup, Solr works like a search engine, allowing keyword matching against questions.

- Wikipedia redirect list

We use the Wikipedia redirect list to identify aliases in name entity recognition, obtained from Wikipedia data dump <sup>5</sup>. The list has 576,627 redirect entries.

- Pre-trained word2vec word embedding

We have a word2vec [22] word embedding trained from the community QA data set. There are 4,128,853 word vector representations and each vector has 200 dimensions.

## 4.3 Experiment Environment

The system is trained and implemented on a 4-core CPU 16GB memory desktop in Java.

## 4.4 Question Pattern Extraction

Because our community QA data is huge, it is prohibitive to iterate through the data to fetch candidate questions for extraction. Instead, for each entity we gather candidate question-answer pairs by querying Solr with its name. Finding entities' names is a challenge: in DBpedia, each entity only has one official name, which often is different from how the entity is mentioned in real life. For example, “上海市(Shanghai City)” is the official name and is the one on DBpedia's record, but the shortened form “上海(Shanghai)” is used most often in reality, and there are many other more often used nicknames such as “魔都”, “沪”, and “申”. The issue is complicated by formatting: western names in DBpedia use the “.” symbol to separate first name and last name, while online users in China often do

---

<sup>3</sup>Baidu Zhidao, Chinese community QA site, [zhidao.baidu.com](http://zhidao.baidu.com)

<sup>4</sup>Apache Solr, [lucene.apache.org/solr](http://lucene.apache.org/solr)

<sup>5</sup>[dumps.wikimedia.org/zhwiki/](http://dumps.wikimedia.org/zhwiki/)

not use “.”. Therefore, if we query Solr with only the official name, it would significantly reduce the candidate pool for extraction.

We identify the entities’ aliases with the help of Wikipedia redirect list and formatting rules. As Wikipedia is the source of DBpedia’s information, the redirect target on the list uses the same official name as DBpedia, making the list the prime resource for alias discovery in our case. We use the two following simple rules for alias discovery:

- For each redirect target and redirect source on the list, add redirect source as an alias for redirect target.
- For western names in the format of “First · Last”, add “First Last” as an alias for “First · Last”.

In total, we discover 653,818 names for 380,513 entities. For each name, we query Solr for questions that contain the name. 78,433 queries return 114,884,161 questions in total (one question may appear multiple times). The low coverage, 12.0%, of the names is expected and shows that community QA do not have information on many entities.

The next step is to determine whether a QA pair is *associated* with a entity-relation-value triple. To do so, we need to detect a value’s presence in a question or an answer. We achieve this by generating regular expressions automatically based on the value and the relation’s type:

- If the relation has “meta” type, we discard the relation altogether because “meta” information such as “imageheight” is specific to the Wikipedia and irrelevant to the entities.
- if the relation has “entity” type, we generate regular expressions that literally match one of the entity’s discovered aliases. For example, for entity-typed value “上海市” we generate regular expressions “上海市”, “上海”, “沪”, and “申”.
- If the relation has “number” type, we generate regular expressions that match any number within a close range of the value. Approximation is crucial because in the DBpedia, number-typed values can be accurate to several digits after the decimal mark, while online users rarely match the exact same accuracy. For example, for number-typed value “1532.7” we generate regular expression “153[0-9](~0-9|)\$”; if the value is followed by a unit such as “米(meter)”, we generate regular expression “153[0-9](\.[0-9]\*)?米”.

- If the relation has “date” type, we generate regular expressions that match the date in the most commonly used format. For example, for date-typed value “2016-07-01” we generate regular expression “2016年7月1日”. If the month or day information is missing in the value, we adjust the regular expression accordingly. The format change from DBpedia’s “yyyy-mm-dd” is crucial for successfully detecting the values.

For each entity, we generate all the regular expressions for its relations and iterate through its candidate QA pairs. Given a QA pair, we test it against every relation of the entity to see:

- whether any regular expression matches the question. If there is a match, the question is not *associated* with the relation.
- whether any regular expression matches one of the answers. If there are no matches, the question is not *associated* with the relation.

If a QA pair is *associated* with only one relation, we extract the question, replace the appearance of the entity in the question with a marker, and group it with other extracted questions under the relation.

On average, a relation has 1,533,859 QA pairs tested against it. Among those, questions in 883,836 (57.6%) pairs do not contain the value, 2,257 (0.15%) pairs are *associated* with at least 1 triple, and only 1,668 (0.11%) questions are extracted. In general, the numbers of questions display a long-tail pattern (see Figure 4.1), with the top 20% relations having 88.0% percent of the total questions. Moreover, 75 relations do not have any questions extracted. The number of extracted questions has a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.34 with the number of QA pairs tested and a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.97 with the number of QA pairs which are associated with at least 1 triples.

## 4.5 Noise Reduction

The word embedding we use is trained with word2vec and covers 4,128,853 words. It has the property that similar words have higher cosine similarity. Our extracted questions are made up of 97,910 different words, which are all contained in the word embedding. However, the word embedding does not contain English words. As a result, we discard questions that have English words.

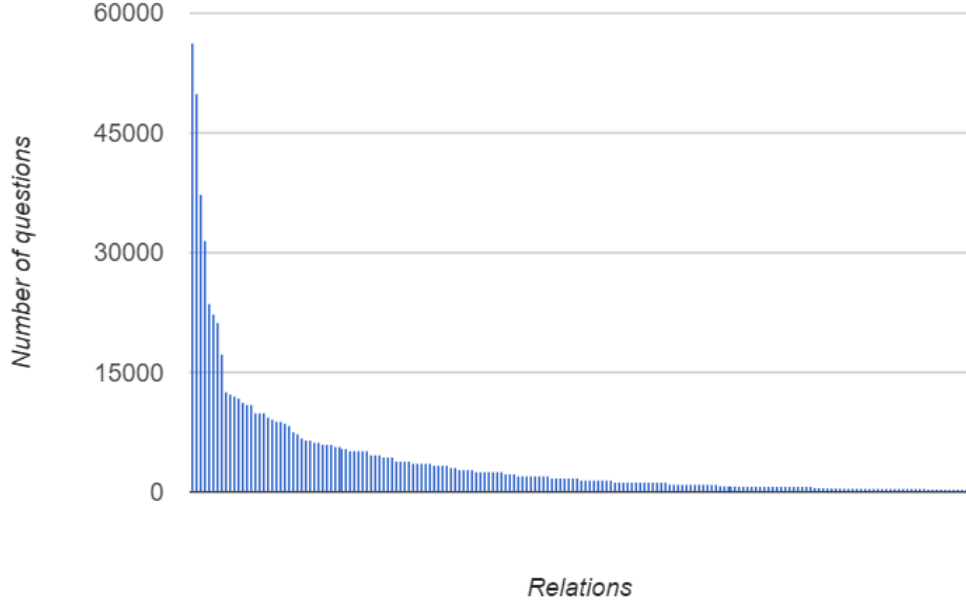


Figure 4.1: Relations and corresponding number of questions

We use DBSCAN [11] to cluster the questions. DBSCAN is one of the density-based clustering algorithms, which assigns closely packed data points to clusters and mark remote points as outliers. Aside from not requiring information on the number of clusters, which we cannot determine beforehand, its advantages include having few parameters and being able to find arbitrarily-shaped clusters.

DBSCAN has two parameters:  $\epsilon$ , a distance threshold, and *minPoints*, the minimum number of data points required to form a cluster. A data point is either assigned to a cluster or classified as noise. To be assigned to a cluster, a data point needs to meet one of the two conditions:

- Core points: if in its  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood there are at least *minPoints* data points (including itself), then the data point is a core point of a cluster.
- Edge points: if the data point is not a core point and there exists a core point such that the distance between the core point and the data point is less than  $\epsilon$ , then the data point is an edge point of a cluster.

For the implementation, we use the Java API of WEKA [16]. We need to define the distance between two questions and provide  $\epsilon$  and *minPoints*.

Building on the cosine similarity between bag-of-words modeling of the questions, we define distance as  $1 - \text{cosine similarity}$ . It has a real value between 0 and 2. We randomly sample 1,000 questions from the extracted data and calculate the distance between every two of them. The average distance of the 249,750 pairs is 0.70.

Ideally,  $\epsilon$  should be set to a value such that any two questions are similar in meaning if and only if the distance between the two is lower than  $\epsilon$ . If  $\epsilon$  is set too large, every data point would be assigned to a single cluster and we would get lots of noise; if  $\epsilon$  is set too small, few data points would get assigned to clusters and we would have few data to work with.

To determine the value empirically, we randomly sample 96 questions from the community QA data directly and query our Solr system for questions that share keywords with them. In the 2,014 top results, we find 1,591 questions to be different in meaning and 423 to be asking about the same question. The average distance between the 1,591 pairs of different meanings is 0.32, which is significantly lower than the 0.70 average in the sample of extracted data. This is expected because 0.32 is the average between pairs that share words while 0.70 comes from pairs that may or may not share words. Meanwhile, the average distance between the 423 pairs of very similar meaning is 0.12. We choose our  $\epsilon$  to be 0.2, which is approximately the average of 0.12 and 0.32.

Parameter *minPoints* also needs to be set properly. In an extreme case with *minPoints* = 1, every data point would be a cluster itself. Additionally, *minPoints* should be different for each relation. It is unreasonable to use the same threshold for a relation with under 100 extracted questions as for a relation with over 10,000 extracted questions.

Setting *minPoints* puts an upper bound on the number of clusters DBSCAN produces and does not affect the lower bound. As each cluster incorporates at least one question pattern, we can estimate the upper bound of number of clusters by estimating the upper bound of number of question patterns a relation can have. We set *minPoints* to be 1% of the number of extracted questions of the relation with a minimum of 4. As long as there are fewer than 100 question patterns that differ a lot from each other, we would be able to identify all the clusters. For patterns with fewer than 1% questions, if such patterns ever exist, we regard them as too marginal for our system.

After clustering, our system examines every cluster and discards clusters where every question is labeled with the same entity.

After discarding questions with English words, there are 392 relations with more than 1 questions. On average, for each relation, the algorithm runs at *minPoints* = 18, discovers 2 clusters, discard 1 cluster, and marks 1263 questions out of 1615 as noise. In total, 242 relations have at least 1 non-noise questions. As shown on Figure 4.2, the noise ratios vary

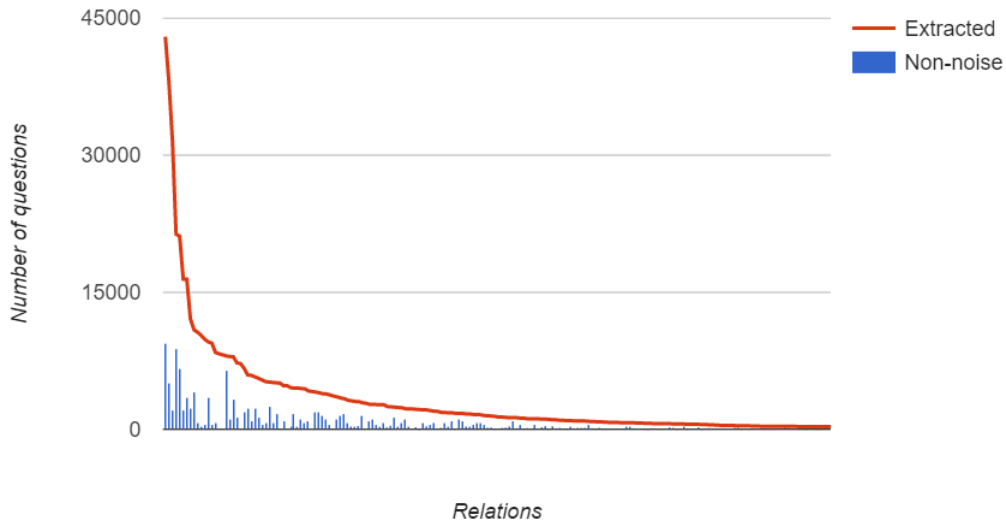


Figure 4.2: Relations and corresponding number of extracted questions, non-noise questions

across relations. Number of extracted questions and number of non-noise questions have a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.82.

## 4.6 Pattern Evaluation and Model Selection

In classification, weighting is usually used when there is an imbalance between number of positive instances and number of negative instances, which is the case in our data. Moreover, for f1-measure to be comparable across different relations, the ratio of positive to negative should remain constant. We use weighting to achieve a 1:1 ratio of positive to negative.

Aside from having support for weighting, the classification model we use should also be fast. For each parameter iteration, we are training nearly a thousand models. Since we are also conducting cross validation, the running time is multiplied by the number of folds of cross validation times number of runs in cross validation. As a result, we are looking at the running time of training hundreds of thousands of models.

We use random forests [8] as our classification method. Based on decision trees, random forests are simple, fast, and resistant to overfitting on training data. To overcome



the overfitting tendency of decision trees, random forests apply two ensemble learning techniques:

- Bootstrap aggregating (bagging): for each decision tree, instead of learning from the whole training data, it learns from a random sample with replacement of the data.
- Random subspace method: for each decision tree, instead of learning from all the features, it learns from a random subset of the features.

We resort to JAVA API of WEKA for implementation. For parameter  $n_{tree}$ , number of decision trees in random forests, we test the performance on  $n_{tree} = 25$  and  $n_{tree} = 50$ . Performance of random forests goes up with this parameter with a diminishing return. We could not test a larger value such as 100 due to limitations of physical memory in the experiment environment, while a typical configuration would be  $n_{tree} = 10$  or  $n_{tree} = 30$ .

Before we evaluate the questions via classification, we still need to identify each relation’s *related* relations. Given a knowledge base, let  $E(r)$  be the set of entities with relation  $r$ . For relation  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ , if  $\frac{card(E(r_1) \cap E(r_2))}{card(E(r_1))} \geq 0.1$ , we add  $r_2$  to  $r_1$ ’s *related* relations. Among the remaining 242 relations, on average, a relation has 16 *related* relations. The ratio of a relation’s questions to those of its *related* relations is 1:18.

Additionally, we need to train the models on a subset of noise questions instead of all the noise. As there are 494,922 noise questions, it is not feasible to use all the data due to physical memory constraint and time constraint. Therefore, we sample noise questions without replacement at different sampling rates  $r_{noise}$  for noise samples to train the models. We test the performance for  $r_{noise} = 10\%$  and  $r_{noise} = 20\%$ .

For each relation, we conduct three five-fold cross validation on its filtered questions against noise sample, and on its filtered questions against its *related* relations’ questions, independently. If the relation has fewer than 20 questions, we discard it due to inadequate instance number. Accordingly, we evaluate 208 relations.

Figure 4.3 plots each relation’s average f1-measures on questions against *related* relations’ questions during two independent cross validation experiments with the same parameters. Though the noise sampling rate is different, classification against *related* relations’ questions does not involve noise samples. Therefore, the differences purely come from cross validation’s random splitting of data. The differences have an average of 0.0001 and a standard deviation of 0.0169. This shows that the inherent randomness in the cross validation process is balanced out by averaging over three runs.

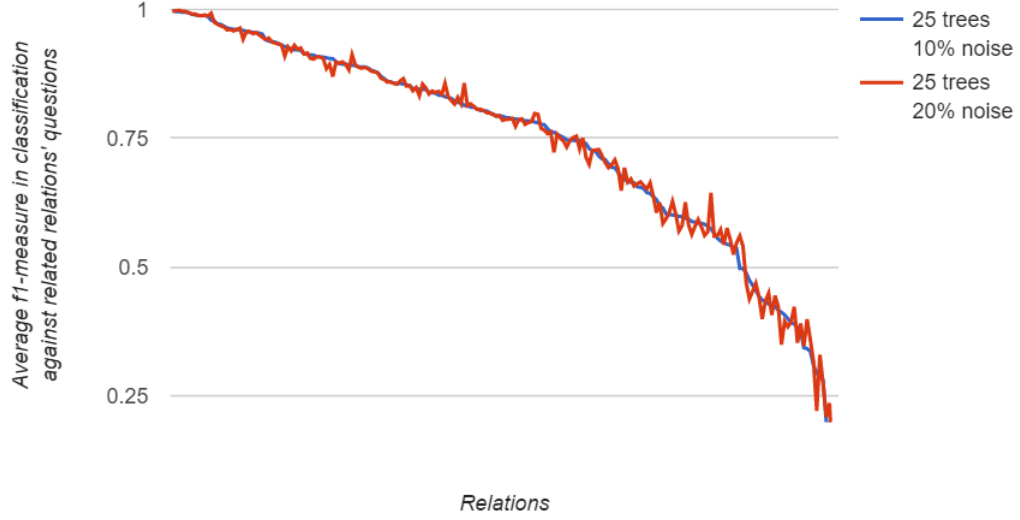


Figure 4.3: Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against *related* relations' questions during two independent cross validation runs with the same parameters.

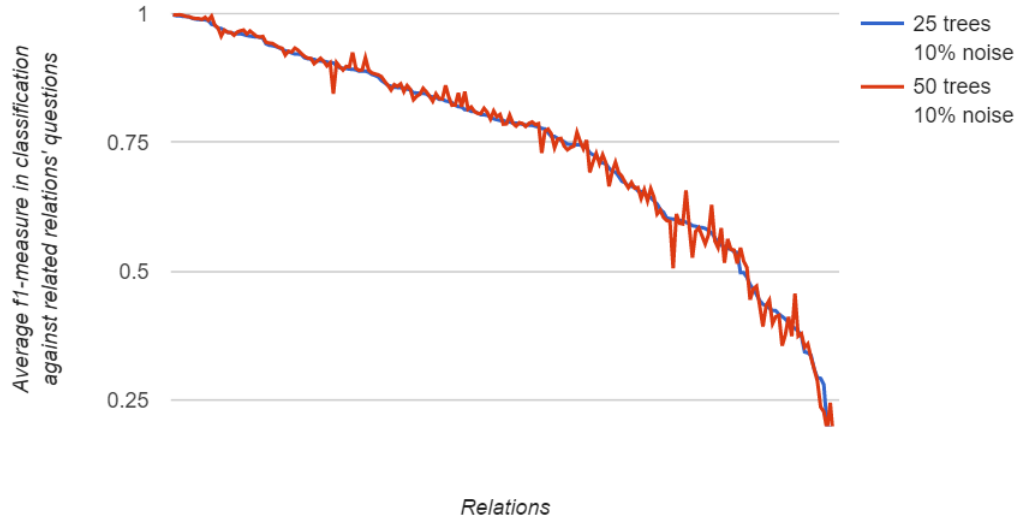


Figure 4.4: Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against *related* relations' questions with  $r_{noise} = 10\%$  and different  $n_{tree}$  values.

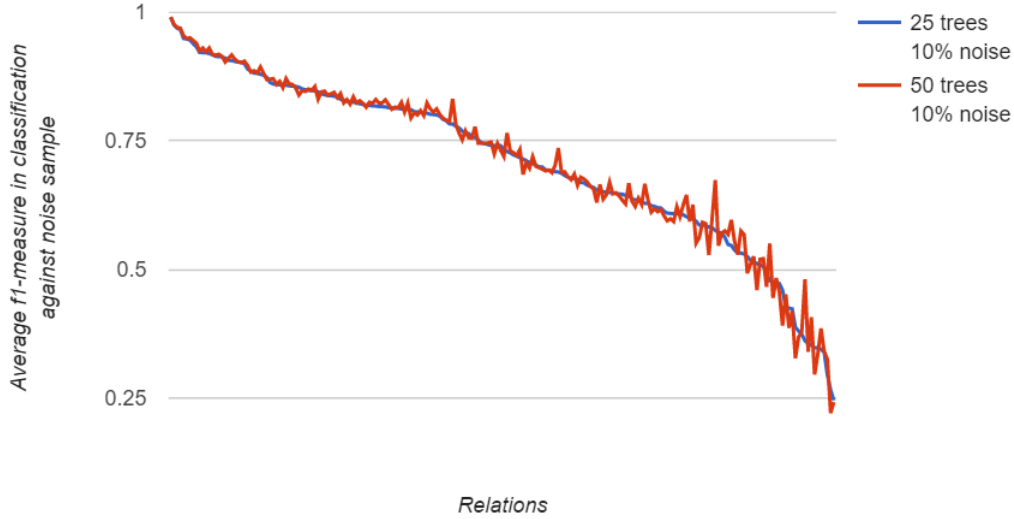


Figure 4.5: Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with  $r_{noise} = 10\%$  and different  $n_{tree}$  values.

Figure 4.4 plots each relations' average f1-measures on questions against *related* relations' questions with  $r_{noise} = 10\%$  and different  $n_{tree}$  values. Overall the two series overlap and having more trees in the random forests does not provide a clear advantage in this case. The differences have an average of -0.0003 and a standard deviation of 0.0188.

Figure 4.5 plots each relations' average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with  $r_{noise} = 10\%$  and different  $n_{tree}$  values. Still having more trees in the random forests does not provide a clear advantage. The differences have an average of -0.0022 and a standard deviation of 0.0210.

Figure 4.6 plots each relations' average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with  $n_{tree} = 25$  and different  $r_{noise}$  values. The average f1-measures drop slightly with the introduction of more data. One possibility would be that the random forests no longer have the capacity to handle the additional data. Or the additional noise samples reduce the distinguishability of the relations' questions. The differences have an average of 0.0312 and a standard deviation of 0.0472. This is not a significant change considering we double the number of negative instances in the classification task.

Figure 4.7 plots each relation's average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with  $r_{noise} = 20\%$  and different  $n_{tree}$  values. Doubling the number of trees in random forests does not differentiate the results much. The differences have an average of 0.0010

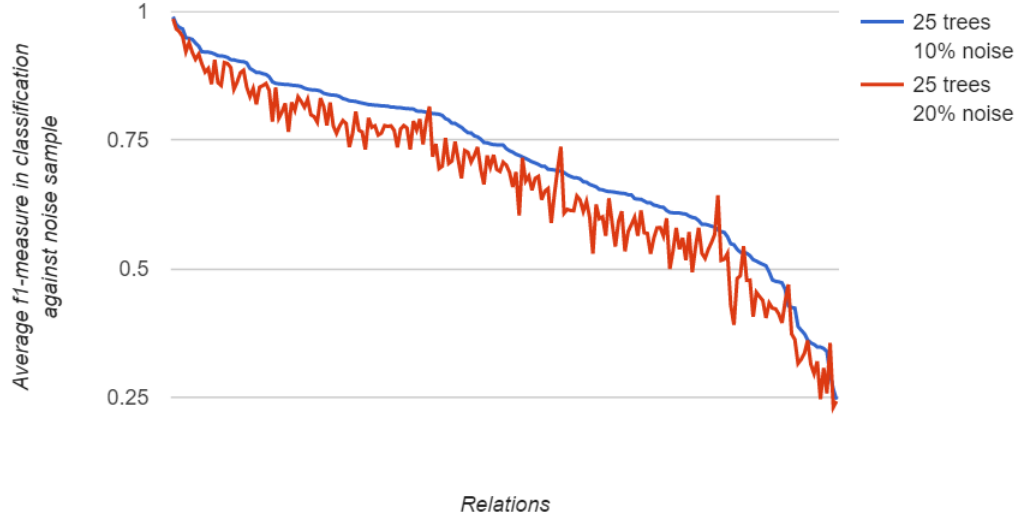


Figure 4.6: Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with  $n_{tree} = 25$  and different  $r_{noise}$  values.

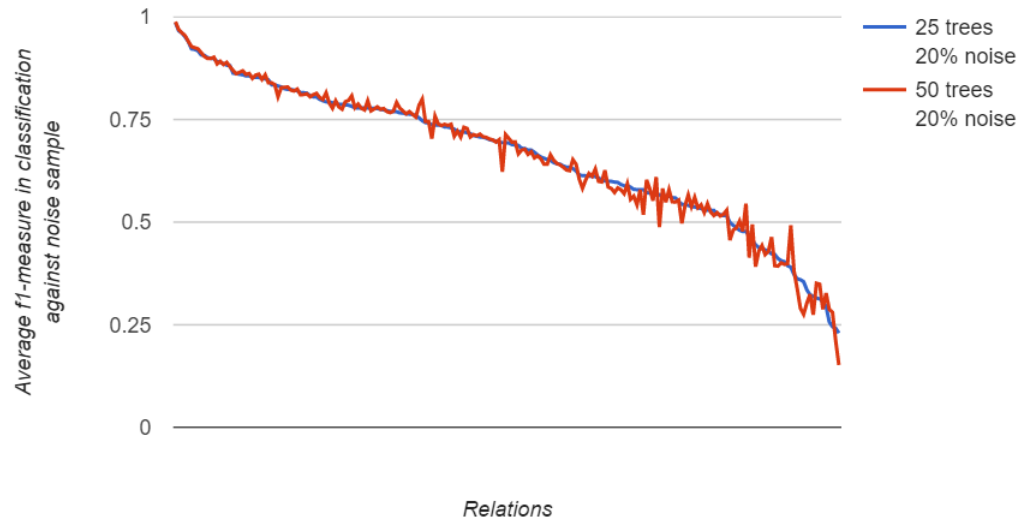


Figure 4.7: Relations and corresponding average f1-measures on questions against noise sample with  $r_{noise} = 20\%$  and different  $n_{tree}$  values.

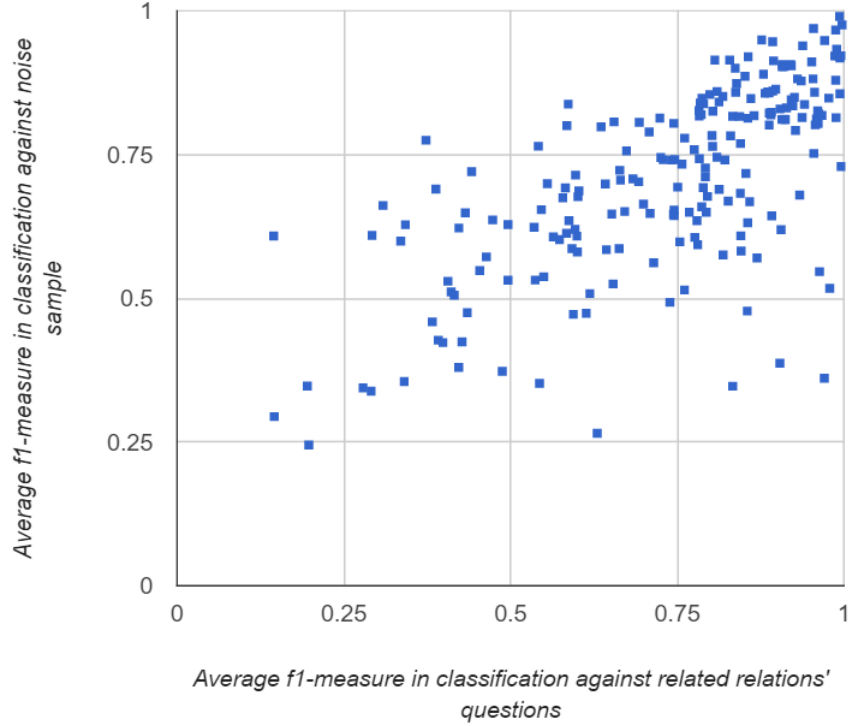


Figure 4.8: Average f1-measures on questions against noise sample and on questions against *related* relations' questions with 25 trees and 10% noise sampling rate.

and a standard deviation of 0.0219. It shows that the slight decrease as seen in Figure 4.6 is not a result of random forests not having enough capacity to handle the additional data.

With  $n_{tree} = 25$  and  $r_{noise} = 10\%$ , average f1-measure on questions against noise sample has a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.68 with average f1-measure on questions against *related* relations' questions, showing that questions that are distinguishable from noise do tend to be distinguishable from *related* relations' questions, yet there is not a strong correlation between the two. See Figure 4.8.

With the same parameters, number of non-noise questions has a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.49 with average f1-measure on questions against noise sample, and a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.28 with average f1-measure on questions against *related* relations' questions. Number of positive instances has a weak correlation with average f1-measures.

For each relation, we also train two classification models without any hold-outs: its

questions against noise sample, and its questions against *related* relations' questions. Given a threshold  $\theta_{model}$ , if the relation's either cross validation f1-measure is lower than  $\theta_{model}$ , we discard the relation's classification models.

## 4.7 Question Parsing and Answering

Question parsing and answering is the only online step in our design.

To answer a question, we first identify the entity by pattern matching through the alias list which we have compiled in Section 4.4. If there is a match for alias  $a$ , we generate a pair  $(a, q_a)$ , where  $q_a$  is the question with  $a$  stripped.

Then we generate candidate answers from  $(a, q_a)$  and score them. Let  $e$  be the entity of which  $a$  is an alias. For every relation  $r$  that  $e$  has in the knowledge base, if we have retained  $r$  classification models, we fetch the triple  $(e, r, v)$  from the knowledge base, use  $v$  as a candidate answer, and assign the two probability outputs of the two classifiers as the scores of the candidate answer.

Finally we rank the candidate answers. Given a threshold  $\theta_{answer}$ , if either score of the candidate answer is lower than  $\theta_{answer}$ , we discard the candidate answer. If there are at least one remaining candidates, we rank them by the average of the two scores, and choose the one with the highest score as the answer.

For example, given  $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$ , the process to answer question “道光 是哪个皇帝的年号? (Which emperor has the Chinese era name Daoguang?)” is as follows:

1. (“道光”, “是哪个皇帝的年号?”) and (“光”, “道是哪个皇帝的年号?”) are produced because aliases “道光” and “光” match the question.
2. 12 values from the knowledge bases are fetched and used as candidate answers. They are scored by invoking the classification models. (“道光”, “是哪个皇帝的年号?”) produces and scores 5 candidate answers while (“光”, “道是哪个皇帝的年号?”) produces and scores the other 7 candidate answers.
3. Only 1 candidate answer “清宣宗爱新觉罗旻宁(Qing Xuanzong Aisin-Gioro Minning)” has scores both of which are higher than  $\theta_{answer}$ . It is produced by (“道光”, “是哪个皇帝的年号?”) and has scores of 1.0 and 0.99.
4. The system produces an answer “清宣宗爱新觉罗旻宁(Qing Xuanzong Aisin-Gioro Minning)”, which is the correct answer to the question.

In the experiment environment (desktop PC), the system is able to answer the question correctly well within 1 second, despite doing hundreds of thousands of pattern matching, fetching 12 values from the knowledge base, and running 24 classification tasks.

# Chapter 5

## Evaluation

### 5.1 Overview

In this chapter, we conduct experiments to evaluate various aspects of the system.

First, we evaluate the performance of the noise reduction component in Section 5.2.

Before we evaluate the end-to-end performance of the system, we brief summarize the parameters of our system in Section 5.3.

Then, we evaluate the overall performance of system along its two design goals:

- The system should not answer questions that do not fall into the single-entity-single-relation category. In Section 5.4, we conduct experiments to test the system’s capability of opting for no answers when it should not answer the question.
- The system should answer as many single-entity-single-relation questions as possible with reasonable accuracy. In Section 5.5, we conduct experiments to test the system’s capability of producing the right answers to questions across different relations.

Finally, we evaluate the run time performance of the system in Section 5.6.

### 5.2 Noise Reduction

We evaluate the noise reduction component by examining the precision, recall, and f1-measure across different relations.



Relation Type	Average Precision	Average Recall	Average F1	Pearson’s $r$
Any	0.6424	0.7367	0.6800	0.0259
Number	0.6395	0.6058	0.6182	0.4099
Entity	0.6429	0.7613	0.6915	-0.0055
Date	0.6416	0.6831	0.6554	0.2122

Table 5.1: Average precision, average recall, average f1-measure, and Pearson produce-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson’s  $r$ ) between f1-measure and number of extracted questions for different typed relations in noise reduction component.

For each relation, we randomly sample 20 questions with replacement: 10 from questions with non-noise label, and 10 from questions with noise label. Note that if there are fewer than 10 questions under certain label, we take all the questions as the sample instead of sampling for 10 times. As a result, it is possible for relations to have fewer than 20 samples. We then manually examine every sample and label it as noise or non-noise. Here we view human annotation as true label. Accordingly, the ratio of noise to non-noise usually is not 1:1. To be able to compare the f1-measure over different relations, we use weighting to balance the ratio of noise to non-noise to 1:1.

Among the 473 relations to which noise reduction is applied, 81 relations do not have any extracted questions without English words. 8 of them have “date” type, 8 of them have “number” type, and the rest 65 have “entity” type. Compared to their ratio in the 473 relations, “number” is more likely to have no extracted questions than “date” and “entity”. As we have explained before, “number” values in DBPedia are usually much more accurate than how they appear in everyday conversations or casual online exchanges. Though our extractor is able to achieve approximation to some extent, in some circumstances it is still not enough. For example, the value of “人口(population)” of “重庆市(Chongqing)” is “28,846,170”, while it is often mentioned as “3千万(30 million)”.

Another 211 relations do not have samples with “non-noise” true labels. Though it is possible that it is due to our relatively small sample size used in evaluation, it may be an accurate portrait of the noisy extracted data. For 130 (61.6%) relations, our noise reduction component successfully label all the questions as noise; and for the rest 38.4% relations, on average, our system misclassify 18.6% of the data as non-noise.

Table 5.1 shows the average precision, average recall, average f1-measure, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson’s  $r$ ) between f1-measure and number of extracted questions for different typed relations in the rest 181 relations. Again, “number”-typed relations tend to under-perform. The low Pearson’s  $r$  values show that f1-measure

is not correlated with the number of extracted relations.

### 5.3 System Parameters

Our system has four parameters,  $n_{tree}$ ,  $r_{noise}$ ,  $\theta_{model}$ ,  $\theta_{answer}$ :

- $n_{tree}$  is used to train the classification models in Section 4.6. It is the number of trees in random forests and is an inherent parameter of random forests. Higher values improves the performance of random forests for a diminishing return, but requires more computing power. We test it on  $\{25, 50\}$ .
- $r_{noise}$  is used to train the classification models in Section 4.6. It is the sampling rate of the noise sample used for model training. Higher values means more training data, but requires more computing power. We test it on  $\{10\%, 20\%\}$ .
- $\theta_{model}$ , f1-measure threshold for model selection, is used to discard inadequate models in Section 4.6. An increase in value decreases the number of model the system uses and therefore decreases the number of relations that the system can identify. We test it on  $\{0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9\}$ .
- $\theta_{answer}$ , probability threshold for answer selection, is used to discard improbable answers in Section 4.7. An increase in value decreases the number of answer candidates the system considers. We test it on  $\{0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9\}$ .

Configuration  $n_{tree} = 25$ ,  $r_{noise} = 10\%$ ,  $\theta_{model} = 0.6$ ,  $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$  is our basic configuration as these are the most relaxed values for each parameters.

### 5.4 Answer Triggering

Answer triggering [31] is a task which requires QA systems to report no answers when given questions that are known to have no correct answers or beyond the knowledge of the systems. This is a relatively novel evaluation task, as traditionally QA systems are evaluated on question-answer data sets where each question has at least 1 correct answers. However, answer triggering is an important task. A system that excels in answer triggering understands the limitation of its knowledge and works well with other QA systems, each of which specializes or excels in certain domains. Meanwhile, a system that does extremely

poor in answer triggering would attempt to answer almost every question and eventually produce much more incorrect answers.

We compile the test cases by randomly sampling our community QA data. As when given a question, our system first uses pattern matching to identify the entities and does not proceed if no known entities are found in the question, to accurately assess our system in answer triggering, the test cases should have entities known to our system.

We gather the test cases by the following steps:

1. Randomly sample aliases from relations known to our system. At our system’s basic parameter configuration, it has models of 130 relations. For each relation, we expand its entity list with our alias list compiled in Section 4.4. Then we randomly sample 5 aliases from each of these relations, for a total of 650 aliases.
2. Query Solr, our storage system for community QA data, for questions that contain the aliases and randomly sample questions from the query results. 6 of the 650 aliases do not have any questions that mention them in community QA data, and we pull a random sample of at most 5 for the rest 644 aliases. If the query result has fewer than 5 questions, we take them all instead of sampling the result. In total we collect 2,689 questions.
3. Label the questions as “single entity single relation” or not. We use the 2,369 non-“single entity single relation” questions as our test case candidates.
4. In the 2,369 candidates, a total of 55 appear in our extracted questions. 46 are classified as noise: 11 of them are in the 10% noise sample, 17 of them are in the 20% noise sample, and 6 of them are in both noise samples. After excluding the candidates that are used to train our models, we end up with 2,338 test cases.

In the testing, our system declines to answer at least 94.4% non-“single entity single relation” questions. Figure 5.2 and 5.1 plots the accuracy in answer triggering task with different parameters. A higher  $r_{noise}$ ,  $\theta_{model}$ , or  $\theta_{answer}$  results in higher accuracy in answer triggering task.

## 5.5 Question Coverage

In Section 5.4, we test whether our system reject questions which it should not answer. And in this section, we evaluate our system by testing whether it answers questions which it should answer correctly.

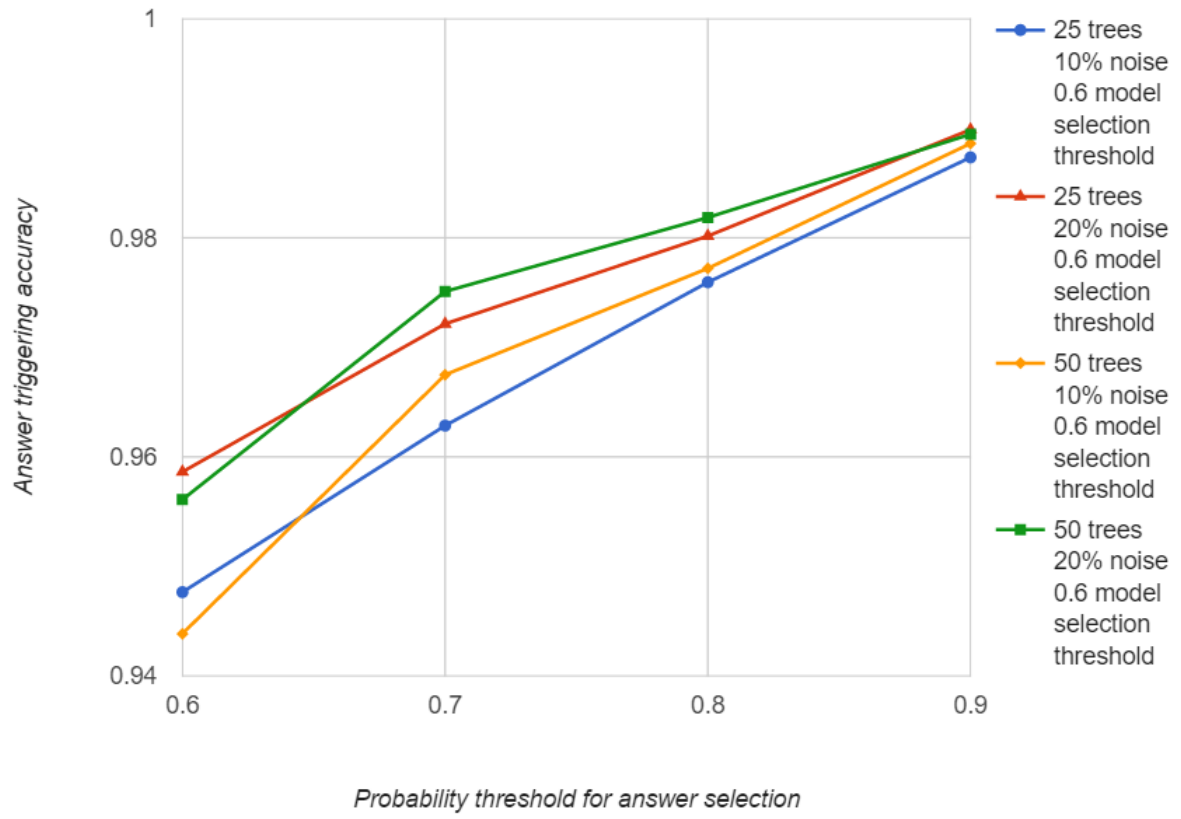


Figure 5.1: Answer triggering accuracy and probability threshold for answer selection with different values of  $n_{tree}$ ,  $r_{noise}$ ,  $\theta_{model}$ , and  $\theta_{answer}$ .

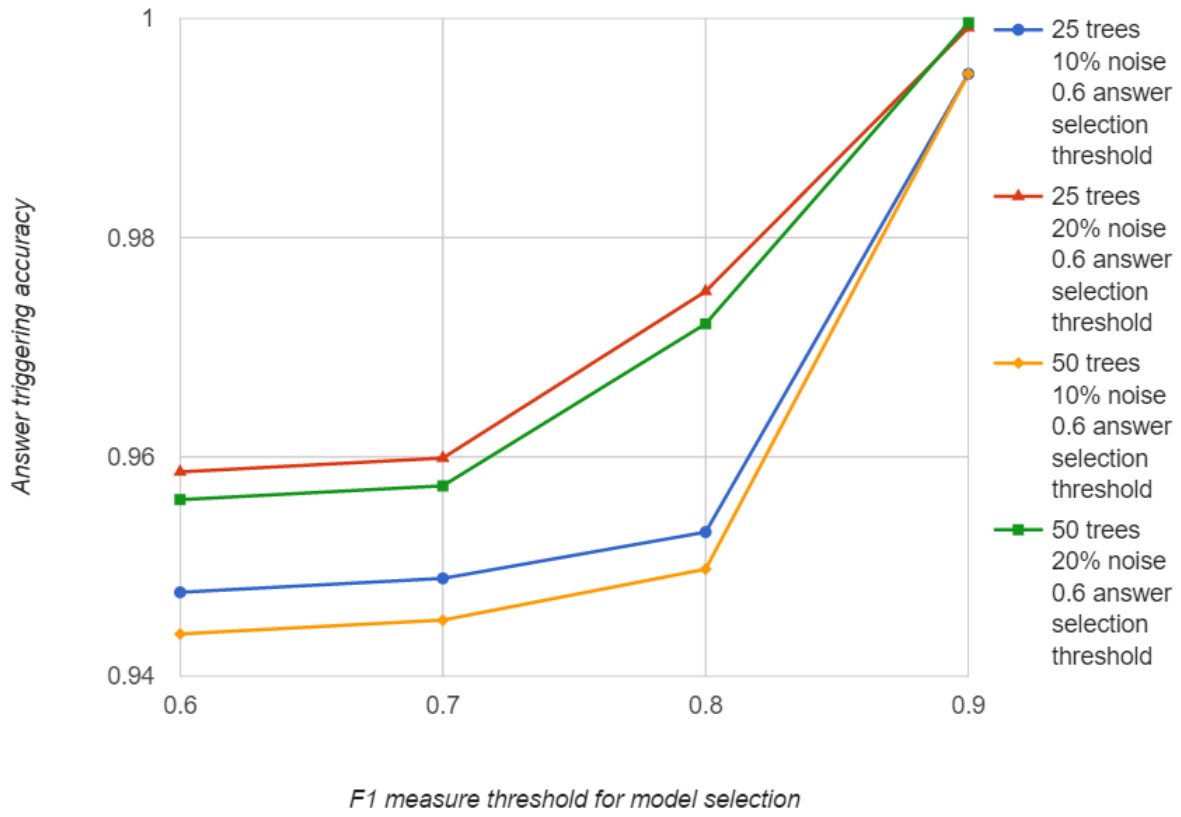


Figure 5.2: Answer triggering accuracy and f1 measure threshold for model selection with different values of  $n_{tree}$ ,  $r_{noise}$ ,  $\theta_{model}$ , and  $\theta_{answer}$ .

Our test cases are generated by combining aliases with question patterns:

1. We begin with the 130 relations and 644 aliases in Section 5.4.
2. For each relation, we have native Chinese speakers come up with questions patterns that are directly asking about the relation. The question patterns should apply to all the alias samples.

For example, let  $a$  be a placeholder for alias, for relation “配偶(spouse)”, questions patterns from our annotators include “ $a$ 的老婆是谁? (Who’s  $a$ ’s wife?)”, “ $a$ 的爱人是谁? (Who’s  $a$ ’s lover?)”, “ $a$ 和谁结婚了? (Who’s  $a$  married to?)”, “ $a$ 娶了谁? (Who did  $a$  marry?)”, etc.

In total we have 279 question patterns from 124 relations. Six relations do not have question patterns: four of them have multiple relations mingled, and there lacks a common question pattern in Chinese for all the alias samples; and the last two, on close inspection, have obscure meanings.

3. Let  $r$  be one of the 124 relations,  $a$  be one of  $r$ ’s sampled alias, and  $q$  be one of  $r$ ’s question patterns, we generate a QA pair by replacing the alias placeholder in  $q$  with  $a$  and fetching  $a$ ’s DBpedia value on  $r$ .

For example, for relation “director”, alias “角斗士(Gladiator)”, and patterns “ $a$ 是谁导演的? (Who directed  $a$ ?)”, “ $a$ 的导演是谁? (Who’s the director of  $a$ ?)”, we first fetch value “雷利·史考特(Ridley Scott)” from DBpedia, then generate two QA pairs: (“角斗士是谁导演的? (Who directed Gladiator?)”, “雷利·史考特(Ridley Scott)”) and (“角斗士的导演是谁? (Who’s the director of Gladiator?)”, “雷利·史考特(Ridley Scott)”).

In total we have 1,395 QA pairs for 124 relations.

We compare the performance of our system to that of two retrieval-based systems, both of which are developed on the same community QA data set and return the original answer of a QA pair as answer:

- Solr

We use Solr to store our community QA data. Working as a search engine, it can be used for question answering. When used as a simple QA system, Solr ranks the QA pairs by the number of shared keywords between the query and its indexed questions. Then it selects the QA pair whose question shares the most words with the query, and returns the answer in the QA pair as the answer to the query.

	<i>SystemR</i>	Solr	Basic configuration
Question Answered	380	1,345	892
Correct Answers	39	60	781
Accuracy on Answered Questions	10.3%	4.5%	87.6%
Accuracy on Test Cases	2.8%	4.3%	56.0%
Correct Answers on <i>SystemR</i> Correct Answers	39	26	25
Correct Answers on Solr Correct Answers	26	60	38
Relations with At Least One Correct Answers	25	29	78
Relations with At Least One Incorrect Answers	98	124	34
Relations with No Questions Answered	23	0	35

Table 5.2: Statistics of *SystemR*, Solr, and basic configuration of our system on the QA test cases.

- Commercial QA system *SystemR*

We have access to a commercial QA system that is developed on the same community QA data set. For the sake of naming, we call it *SystemR*. *SystemR* has a search engine architecture similar to Solr. But instead of ranking QA pairs by the number of shared words between query and the question, *SystemR* ranks the QA pairs by the sentence similarity between query and the question. The similarity measure used by *SystemR* is a combination of weighted cosine similarity, overlap similarity, longest common substring, and word order similarity. If the similarity score is below certain threshold, *SystemR* declines to answer the question.

We manually examine the answers of the two systems for each of the 1,395 questions and label them “correct”, “incorrect”, or “missing answer”, based on whether the systems give an answer and if they do, whether the answers have the same meaning as the DBpedia values in the test cases.

We automatically mark the answers from our system: answers that are exact matches of the DBpedia values are marked “correct”, and the others are marked “incorrect” or “missing answer” depending on whether our system gives an answer or not.

Table 5.2 shows the performance of *SystemR*, Solr, and our system with the basic configuration at the test cases. *Accuracy on Test Cases* is calculated as *Correct Answers* / 1395 (*size of test cases*), and *Accuracy on Answered Questions* is calculated as *Correct Answers* / *Questions Answered*.

Our system comes at top in number of correctly answered questions, accuracy on answered questions, accuracy on test cases, and number of relations with at least 1 correctly answered questions. However, our system cannot identify the relation in any question of 35 relations. Also, even though our system gives much more correct answers, it cannot answer all the question which *SystemR* or Solr answers correctly.

Our system’s high accuracy on the test cases, 56.0% compared to *SystemR*’s 2.8% and Solr’s 4.3%, is largely attributed to the incorporation of structured knowledge base, and the separation of a question into entity and question pattern. Once our system learns a pattern for a relation, it can apply it to the relation’s numerous entities and their aliases to answer numerous similar questions; meanwhile, for each newly acquired QA pair, retrieval-based systems like *SystemR* and Solr can learn to answer at most one new question. Our system does not need to encounter the question during the system’s development in order to answer the question, while retrieval-based systems do.

Our system has very high accuracy on the answered questions, 87.6% compared to *SystemR*’s 10.3% and Solr’s 4.5%. For it to answer a question, our system needs to be able to recognize an entity and a matching relation in the question. Solr is a search engine, therefore as long as one of the QA pairs shares keywords with the query, Solr produces an answer. Even though *SystemR* also uses threshold to control its answer output, *SystemR*’s similarity mechanisms fail to consider that two questions with the same pattern have totally different meaning if they have different entities in the questions. The entity in a question carries a weight disproportional of its length.

Table 5.3, Table 5.4, and Table 5.5 show how adjusting different parameters affect the our system’s performance on the test cases.  $r_{noise}$ ,  $\theta_{model}$ , and  $\theta_{answer}$ , have similar effects: higher values result in fewer answered questions, lower accuracy on test cases, and higher accuracy on answered questions. The influence of  $\theta_{model}$  is the most drastic, as it directly controls the number of classification models in the system.  $n_{tree}$  has little effects on the performance, which corroborates our similar observation in Section 4.6.

## 5.6 Run Time

We test the run time performance of our system in a single-thread environment. Table 5.6 shows the average time per question it takes for our system to process all the 1,395 test cases with different parameter values. As  $\theta_{answer}$  does not affect the processing time, it is not shown here.

In general, our system takes at most 19.89 milliseconds to answer a question. The fewer



	$n_{tree} = 25,$ $r_{noise} = 0.1$	$n_{tree} = 25,$ $r_{noise} = 0.2$	$n_{tree} = 50,$ $r_{noise} = 0.1$	$n_{tree} = 50,$ $r_{noise} = 0.2$
Question Answered	892	832	879	836
Correct Answers	781	733	772	741
Accuracy on Answered Questions	87.6%	88.1%	87.8%	88.6%
Accuracy on Test Cases	56.0%	52.5%	55.3%	53.1%
Correct Answers on <i>SystemR</i> Correct Answers	25	23	25	24
Correct Answers on Solr Correct Answers	38	35	37	35
Relations with At Least One Correct Answers	78	73	76	73
Relations with At Least One Incorrect Answers	34	27	31	25
Relations with No Questions Answered	35	44	37	44

Table 5.3: Statistics of our system with  $\theta_{model} = 0.6$ ,  $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$  and different  $n_{tree}$  and  $r_{noise}$  values on the QA test cases.

$\theta_{model}$	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9
Question Answered	892	746	554	100
Correct Answers	781	651	493	95
Accuracy on Answered Questions	87.6%	87.3%	89.0%	95.0%
Accuracy on Test Cases	56.0%	46.7%	35.3%	6.8%
Correct Answers on <i>SystemR</i> Correct Answers	25	19	14	3
Correct Answers on Solr Correct Answers	38	30	23	3
Relations with At Least One Correct Answers	78	59	42	9
Relations with At Least One Incorrect Answers	34	27	19	2
Relations with No Questions Answered	35	60	79	115

Table 5.4: Statistics of our system with  $n_{tree} = 25$ ,  $r_{noise} = 10\%$ ,  $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$  and different  $\theta_{model}$  values on the QA test cases.

$\theta_{answer}$	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9
Question Answered	892	873	824	753
Correct Answers	781	765	728	667
Accuracy on Answered Questions	87.6%	87.6%	88.3%	88.6%
Accuracy on Test Cases	56.0%	54.8%	52.2%	47.8%
Correct Answers on <i>SystemR</i> Correct Answers	25	25	23	22
Correct Answers on Solr Correct Answers	38	38	37	35
Relations with At Least One Correct Answers	78	78	77	71
Relations with At Least One Incorrect Answers	34	34	31	28
Relations with No Questions Answered	35	35	38	45

Table 5.5: Statistics of our system with  $n_{tree} = 25$ ,  $r_{noise} = 10\%$ ,  $\theta_{model} = 0.6$  and different  $\theta_{answer}$  values on the QA test cases.

relations in the system, the lower the average time is. Overall, our system is shown to be a real-time QA system.

$n_{tree}$	$r_{noise}$	$\theta_{model}$	Number of Relations	Average Time (ms)
25	0.1	6	130	19.89
25	0.1	7	96	17.83
25	0.1	8	68	15.41
25	0.1	9	15	3.24
25	0.2	6	118	18.29
25	0.2	7	90	16.94
25	0.2	8	41	13.28
25	0.2	9	7	2.21
50	0.1	6	131	19.87
50	0.1	7	97	17.95
50	0.1	8	68	16.46
50	0.1	9	15	3.24
50	0.2	6	118	18.88
50	0.2	7	91	18.05
50	0.2	8	42	13.16
50	0.2	9	8	2.43

Table 5.6: System’s average run time per question and number of relations in the system with different  $n_{tree}$ ,  $r_{noise}$ ,  $\theta_{model}$  values on the QA test cases.

# Chapter 6

## Discussion

In this chapter we combine results from development and evaluation of our system to gain more comprehensive insights.

Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2 plot relations' f1-measure in noise reduction and average f1-measure in classification against *related* relations' questions and in classification against 10% noise sample, with 25 trees in random forests. The former measures the correctness of the labels in the classification models' training data, and the latter measures the separability of the training data. We expect a higher percentage of correct labels in the training data corresponds to better separability. However, we observe that to the left there are relations with zero f1-measure in noise reduction yet very high f1-measure in classification tasks, and in the lower right there are relations with high f1-measure in noise reduction yet quite low f1-measure in classification tasks.

After examining these outliers, we discover that the data of those with zero f1-measure in noise reduction consists of similar unrelated questions that are distinguishable. For example, “湖泊类别(Lake type)” have 63.6% questions asking about “Which lake is the biggest  $e$ ?”, where  $e$  is the entity placeholder. These questions are introduced to our system by lakes which share the alias “淡水湖(freshwater lake)” and have value “咸水湖(saltwater lake)”. Though the question pattern is not related to the relation and not even a single-entity-single-relation question, it is a valid question that is easily distinguishable from noise or other question patterns. We need to improve our extraction process or noise reduction process to eliminate these.

On the other hand, relations with high f1-measure in noise reduction yet low f1-measure in classification tasks suffer from the problem of inadequate instances. The four relations with the most disparity average 31 non-noise questions, while an average relation has 663

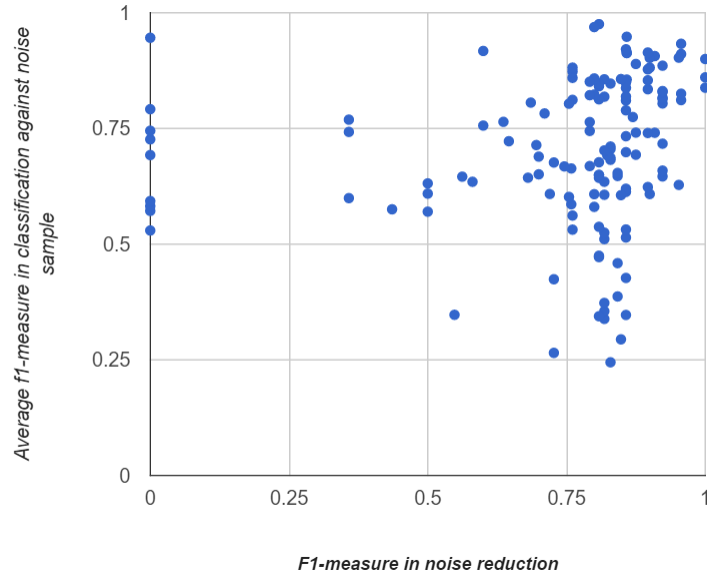


Figure 6.1: Relations' f1-measure in noise reduction and average f1-measure in classification against 10% noise sample with 25 trees in random forests.

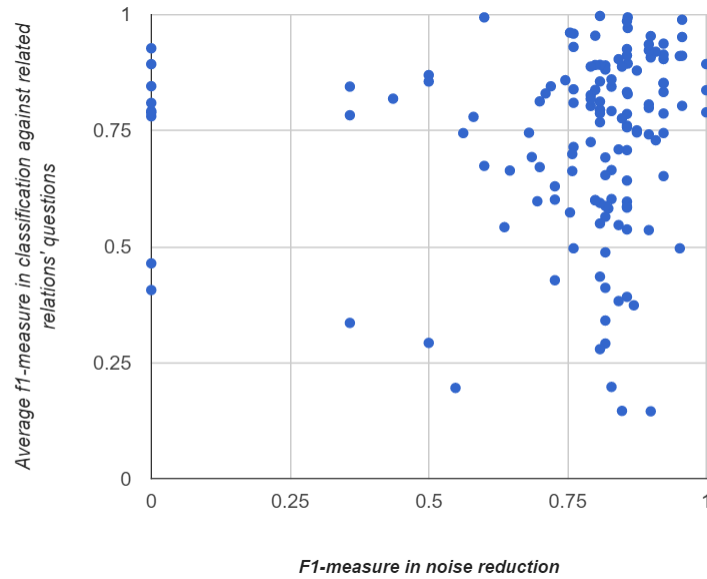


Figure 6.2: Relations' f1-measure in noise reduction and average f1-measure in classification against *related* relations' questions with 25 trees in random forests.

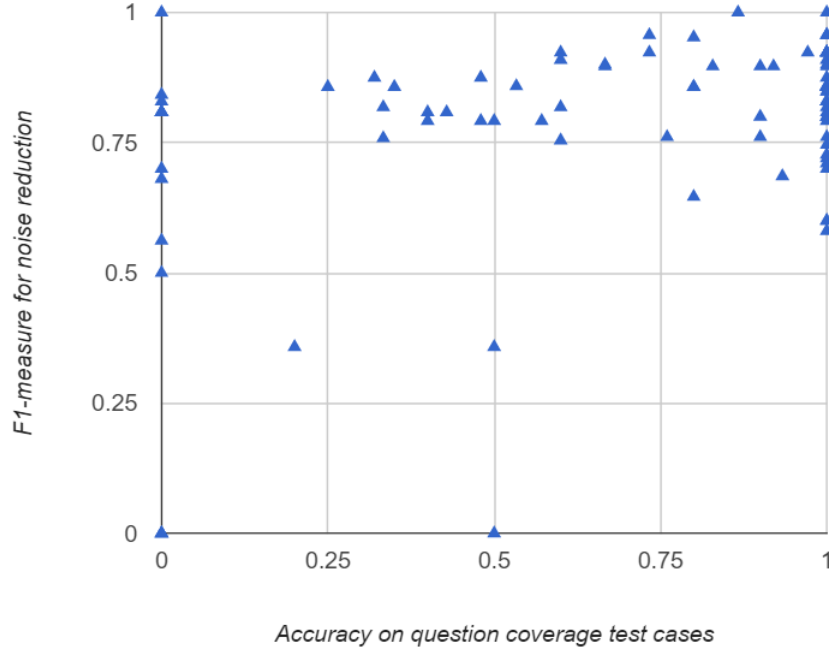


Figure 6.3: Relations’ accuracy on question coverage test cases at the basic configuration of our system and corresponding f1-measure on noise reduction.

non-noise questions. We may work on our extraction process to gather more questions, though it is also possible that the results are limited by our community QA data.

Figure 6.3 plots relations’ accuracy on question coverage test cases at the basic configuration of our system and corresponding f1-measure on noise reduction. The former measures our models’ performance on the test cases, and the latter measures the correctness of the labels in the training data. Because our test cases are independent of the training data, we do not expect any correlation. Indeed the data points scatter around, with a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.40 between noise reduction f1-measure and accuracy on test cases.

We observe that there is an outlier, relation “主君(master)”, with a zero noise reduction f1-measure yet a non-zero accuracy on the QA test cases. On close inspection, it has a zero noise reduction f1-measure because random sampling fails to sample any truly non-noise questions. During the extraction process it is flooded with questions about the popular Chinese ancient novel *Romance of the Three Kingdoms*, where the main characters have this relation with other main characters. As a result, many questions about the main

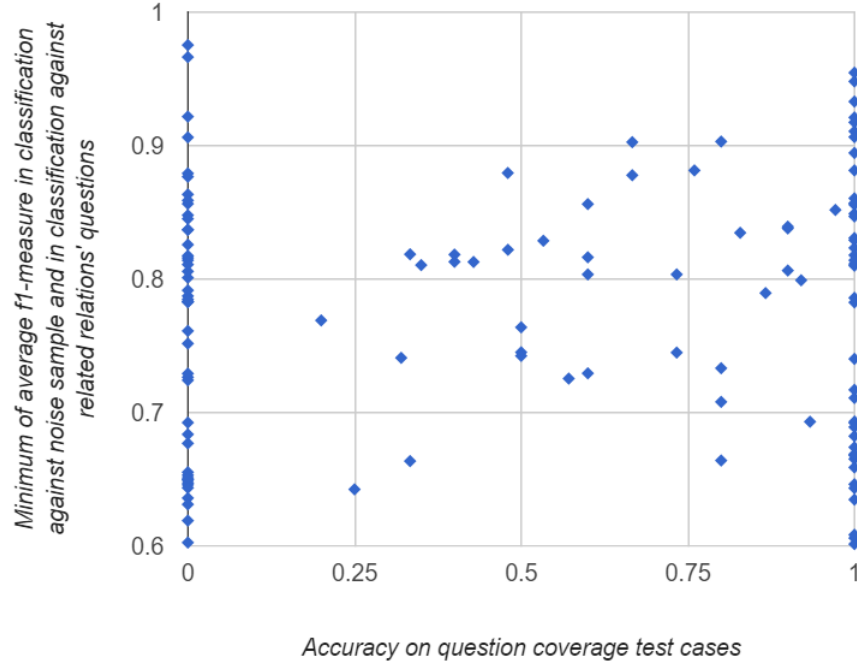


Figure 6.4: Relations’ accuracy on question coverage test cases at the basic configuration of our system and minimum of average f1-measure in classification against 10% noise sample and in *related* relations’ questions with 25 trees in random forests.

characters find their way past the noise reduction process, making up the majority of questions with “non-noise” labeling.

Figure 6.4 plots relations’ accuracy on question coverage test cases at the basic configuration of our system and minimum of average f1-measure in classification against *related* relations’ questions and in classification against 10% noise sample, with 25 trees in random forests. The former measures our models’ performance on the test cases, and the latter measures our models’ performance in cross validation on training data. Again, because the our test cases are independent of our training data, we expect no correlation between the two. Indeed, they have a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient of 0.07.

In Table 6.1 is our system’s performance data in answer triggering and question coverage tasks with different  $n_{tree}$  and  $r_{noise}$  values. The accuracy does not vary much. This shows that  $n_{tree} = 25$  is a sufficient number of decision trees in random forests, and that  $r = 10\%$  is a sufficiently large noise sampling rate.

In Figure 6.5 and Figure 6.6 we plot the effects of  $\theta_{model}$  and  $\theta_{answer}$  on our system’s

	$n_{tree} = 25,$ $r_{noise} = 0.1$	$n_{tree} = 25,$ $r_{noise} = 0.2$	$n_{tree} = 50,$ $r_{noise} = 0.1$	$n_{tree} = 50,$ $r_{noise} = 0.2$
Answer Triggering Accuracy	94.8%	95.9%	94.4%	95.6%
Accuracy on Answered Questions	87.6%	88.1%	87.8%	88.6%
Accuracy on Test Cases	56.0%	52.5%	55.3%	53.1%

Table 6.1: Answer triggering and question coverage statistics of our system with  $\theta_{model} = 0.6$ ,  $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$  and different  $n_{tree}$  and  $r_{noise}$  values.

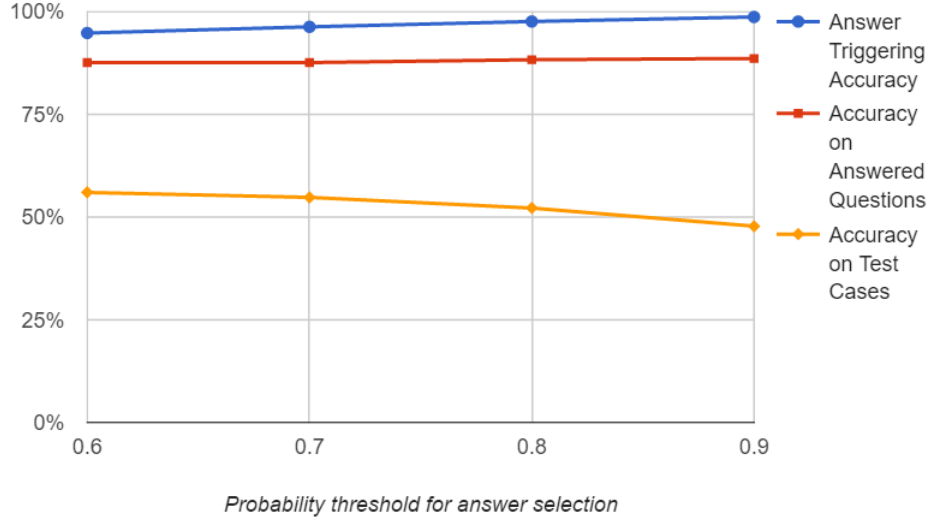


Figure 6.5: Answer triggering and question coverage statistics of our system with  $n_{tree} = 25$ ,  $r_{noise} = 10\%$ ,  $\theta_{model} = 0.6$  and different  $\theta_{answer}$  values.



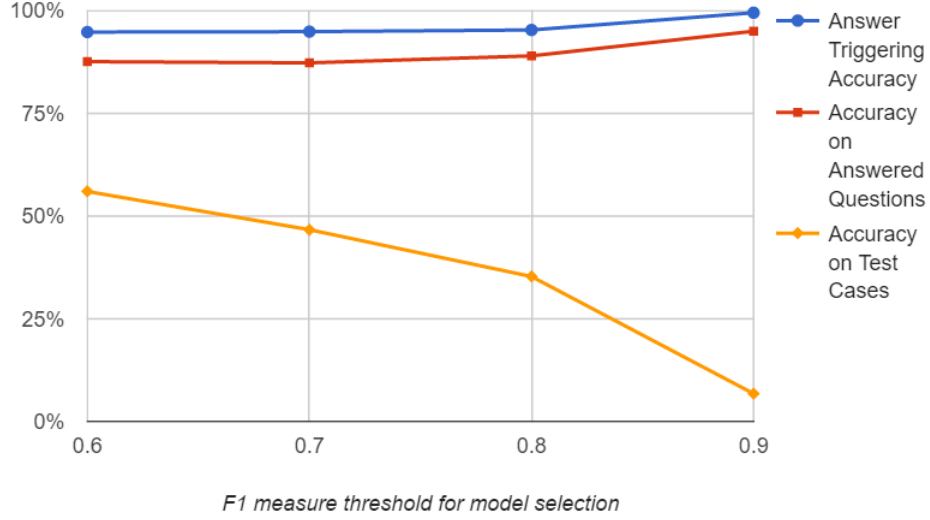


Figure 6.6: Answer triggering and question coverage statistics of our system with  $n_{tree} = 25$ ,  $r_{noise} = 10\%$ ,  $\theta_{answer} = 0.6$  and different  $\theta_{model}$  values.

answer triggering accuracy, accuracy on answered questions, and accuracy on question coverage test cases. Most changes are smooth, except increasing  $\theta_{model}$  drastically lowers the system's accuracy on question coverage test cases because higher  $\theta_{model}$  values result in the fewer classification models in the system, thereby reducing the number of relations the system can identify.

# Chapter 7

## Conclusion

We have presented a novel bag-of-words based approach that automatically constructs a semantic parsing based question answering system from a large corpus of QA pairs and knowledge base. The approach uses knowledge base to supervise relation extraction from the corpus, reduces noise in the extracted data via unsupervised clustering, and learns to identify each relation’s question patterns

We have implemented it on a Chinese corpus of community QA pairs and DBPedia with minimal manual annotation. Through experiments we have demonstrated the efficiency of our extraction process and noise reduction process. More importantly, we have demonstrated that our implementation is able to answer new questions with a relatively high accuracy and to avoid answering questions beyond its scope. Figure 7.1 illustrates the relationships between community QA questions, single-entity-single-relation questions,

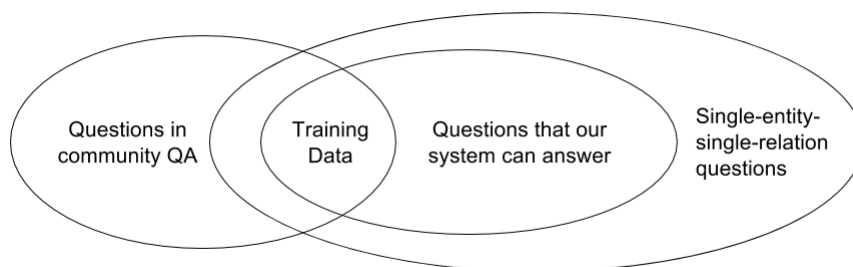


Figure 7.1: Relationships between community QA questions, single-entity-single-relation questions, and questions that our implementation has learned to answer.

and questions that our implementation has learned to answer. Last but not least, our implementation manages to answer a question within 20 milliseconds on a desktop environment.

Several open challenges remain. For better implementations, we would like to start with automating the annotation of relation types in DBPedia by utilizing the aggregation of all values belonging to the same relation. If successful, we would be able to rid our implementation of any costly manual annotation. However, automatic identification of the “meta” types is a challenge in itself.

Another possible improvement for implementation would be identifying and separating the composite relations. Composite relations in DBPedia are a direct consequence of ambiguity of Wikipedia infobox tags and introduced by Wikipedia users incorrectly tagging infobox properties. For example, “capital” is a composite relation in Chinese DBPedia. It not only includes capital cities of regions and countries, but also includes financial assets of companies (the other meaning of capital). Every major component of our implementation, from extraction module to classification models, would benefit from splitting “capital” into two or more distinct relations.

Finally, we would like to incorporate syntactic information into our approach. So far our approach is based on bag-of-words models. Consequently, useful information such as word order and sentence structure is lost. We want to explore introducing syntactic features such as parse trees to our noise reduction procedure and classification models. We believe modifying the similarity measure we use to include tree-kernel functions is a good starting point.

# References

- [1] Sören Auer, Christian Bizer, Georgi Kobilarov, Jens Lehmann, Richard Cyganiak, and Zachary Ives. Dbpedia: A nucleus for a web of open data. In *The semantic web*, pages 722–735. Springer, 2007.
- [2] Michele Banko, Michael J Cafarella, Stephen Soderland, Matthew Broadhead, and Oren Etzioni. Open information extraction from the web. In *IJCAI*, volume 7, pages 2670–2676, 2007.
- [3] Jonathan Berant, Andrew Chou, Roy Frostig, and Percy Liang. Semantic parsing on freebase from question-answer pairs. In *EMNLP*, volume 2, page 6, 2013.
- [4] Jonathan Berant and Percy Liang. Semantic parsing via paraphrasing. In *ACL (1)*, pages 1415–1425, 2014.
- [5] Kurt Bollacker, Colin Evans, Praveen Paritosh, Tim Sturge, and Jamie Taylor. Freebase: a collaboratively created graph database for structuring human knowledge. In *Proceedings of the 2008 ACM SIGMOD international conference on Management of data*, pages 1247–1250. ACM, 2008.
- [6] Antoine Bordes, Sumit Chopra, and Jason Weston. Question answering with subgraph embeddings. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1406.3676*, 2014.
- [7] Antoine Bordes, Nicolas Usunier, Sumit Chopra, and Jason Weston. Large-scale simple question answering with memory networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1506.02075*, 2015.
- [8] Leo Breiman. Random forests. *Machine learning*, 45(1):5–32, 2001.
- [9] Razvan C Bunescu and Raymond J Mooney. A shortest path dependency kernel for relation extraction. In *Proceedings of the conference on human language technology and empirical methods in natural language processing*, pages 724–731. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2005.

- [10] Hang Cui, Renxu Sun, Keya Li, Min-Yen Kan, and Tat-Seng Chua. Question answering passage retrieval using dependency relations. In *Proceedings of the 28th annual international ACM SIGIR conference on Research and development in information retrieval*, pages 400–407. ACM, 2005.
- [11] Martin Ester, Hans-Peter Kriegel, Jörg Sander, and Xiaowei Xu. A density-based algorithm for discovering clusters in large spatial databases with noise. In *Kdd*, volume 96, pages 226–231, 1996.
- [12] Anthony Fader, Stephen Soderland, and Oren Etzioni. Identifying relations for open information extraction. In *Proceedings of the Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 1535–1545. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2011.
- [13] Anthony Fader, Luke S Zettlemoyer, and Oren Etzioni. Paraphrase-driven learning for open question answering. In *ACL (1)*, pages 1608–1618. Citeseer, 2013.
- [14] Bert F Green Jr, Alice K Wolf, Carol Chomsky, and Kenneth Laughery. Baseball: an automatic question-answerer. In *Papers presented at the May 9-11, 1961, western joint IRE-AIEE-ACM computer conference*, pages 219–224. ACM, 1961.
- [15] Zhou GuoDong, Su Jian, Zhang Jie, and Zhang Min. Exploring various knowledge in relation extraction. In *Proceedings of the 43rd annual meeting on association for computational linguistics*, pages 427–434. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2005.
- [16] Mark Hall, Eibe Frank, Geoffrey Holmes, Bernhard Pfahringer, Peter Reutemann, and Ian H Witten. The weka data mining software: an update. *ACM SIGKDD explorations newsletter*, 11(1):10–18, 2009.
- [17] Michael Heilman and Noah A Smith. Tree edit models for recognizing textual entailments, paraphrases, and answers to questions. In *Human Language Technologies: The 2010 Annual Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 1011–1019. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2010.
- [18] Johannes Hoffart, Fabian M Suchanek, Klaus Berberich, and Gerhard Weikum. Yago2: A spatially and temporally enhanced knowledge base from wikipedia. *Artificial Intelligence*, 194:28–61, 2013.

- [19] Nanda Kambhatla. Combining lexical, syntactic, and semantic features with maximum entropy models for extracting relations. In *Proceedings of the ACL 2004 on Interactive poster and demonstration sessions*, page 22. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2004.
- [20] Tom Kwiatkowski, Luke Zettlemoyer, Sharon Goldwater, and Mark Steedman. Inducing probabilistic ccg grammars from logical form with higher-order unification. In *Proceedings of the 2010 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*, pages 1223–1233. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2010.
- [21] Cody Kwok, Oren Etzioni, and Daniel S Weld. Scaling question answering to the web. *ACM Transactions on Information Systems (TOIS)*, 19(3):242–262, 2001.
- [22] Tomas Mikolov, Ilya Sutskever, Kai Chen, Greg S Corrado, and Jeff Dean. Distributed representations of words and phrases and their compositionality. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 3111–3119, 2013.
- [23] George A Miller. Wordnet: a lexical database for english. *Communications of the ACM*, 38(11):39–41, 1995.
- [24] Mike Mintz, Steven Bills, Rion Snow, and Dan Jurafsky. Distant supervision for relation extraction without labeled data. In *Proceedings of the Joint Conference of the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACL and the 4th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing of the AFNLP: Volume 2-Volume 2*, pages 1003–1011. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2009.
- [25] Barbara Plank and Alessandro Moschitti. Embedding semantic similarity in tree kernels for domain adaptation of relation extraction. In *ACL (1)*, pages 1498–1507, 2013.
- [26] Yusuke Shinyama and Satoshi Sekine. Preemptive information extraction using unrestricted relation discovery. In *Proceedings of the main conference on Human Language Technology Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association of Computational Linguistics*, pages 304–311. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2006.
- [27] Richard Socher, Brody Huval, Christopher D Manning, and Andrew Y Ng. Semantic compositionality through recursive matrix-vector spaces. In *Proceedings of the 2012 Joint Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and Computational Natural Language Learning*, pages 1201–1211. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2012.

- [28] Di Wang and Eric Nyberg. A long short-term memory model for answer sentence selection in question answering. *ACL, July*, 2015.
- [29] Mengqiu Wang. A re-examination of dependency path kernels for relation extraction. In *IJCNLP*, pages 841–846, 2008.
- [30] William A Woods and R Kaplan. Lunar rocks in natural english: Explorations in natural language question answering. *Linguistic structures processing*, 5:521–569, 1977.
- [31] Yi Yang, Wen-tau Yih, and Christopher Meek. Wikiqa: A challenge dataset for open-domain question answering. In *Proceedings of EMNLP*, pages 2013–2018. Citeseer, 2015.
- [32] Xuchen Yao and Benjamin Van Durme. Information extraction over structured data: Question answering with freebase. In *ACL (1)*, pages 956–966. Citeseer, 2014.
- [33] Wen-tau Yih, Ming-Wei Chang, Christopher Meek, and Andrzej Pastusiak. Question answering using enhanced lexical semantic models. 2013.
- [34] Wen-tau Yih, Xiaodong He, and Christopher Meek. Semantic parsing for single-relation question answering. In *ACL (2)*, pages 643–648. Citeseer, 2014.
- [35] Dmitry Zelenko, Chinatsu Aone, and Anthony Richardella. Kernel methods for relation extraction. *Journal of machine learning research*, 3(Feb):1083–1106, 2003.
- [36] Daojian Zeng, Kang Liu, Siwei Lai, Guangyou Zhou, Jun Zhao, et al. Relation classification via convolutional deep neural network. In *COLING*, pages 2335–2344, 2014.
- [37] Luke S Zettlemoyer and Michael Collins. Online learning of relaxed ccg grammars for parsing to logical form. In *EMNLP-CoNLL*, pages 678–687, 2007.
- [38] Luke S Zettlemoyer and Michael Collins. Learning to map sentences to logical form: Structured classification with probabilistic categorial grammars. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1207.1420*, 2012.
- [39] Min Zhang, Jie Zhang, Jian Su, and Guodong Zhou. A composite kernel to extract relations between entities with both flat and structured features. In *Proceedings of the 21st International Conference on Computational Linguistics and the 44th annual meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 825–832. Association for Computational Linguistics, 2006.

- [40] Zhiping Zheng. Answerbus question answering system. In *Proceedings of the second international conference on Human Language Technology Research*, pages 399–404. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc., 2002.